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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN ANALYSIS OF THE UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT

INTERVIEW AND AN INVESTIGATION OF ONE OF

ITS INFORMATION-EXCHANGE FUNCTIONS

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read,

and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies

for acceptance, a thesis entitled An Analysis of the

University Placement Interview and an Investigation of

One of Its Information-Exchange Functions submitted by

Jack William Ondrack in partial fulfilment of the

requirements for the degree of Master of Business

Administration.

ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with determining the
importance graduating seniors attach to various decision
factors in taking a position with a firm, and the
perception and retention of this information by recruiters
gained through placement interviews.

The utility of the college placement interview is
discussed at length, through a review of the contemporary
literature. In addition, the study reports on an empirical
investigation designed to determine the factors considered
to be important by graduating seniors in choosing a
position with a firm. The fifteen factors thought to be
important are ranked by samples of graduating seniors in
each of an arts, engineering and commerce faculty at a
university. Further, campus recruiters are asked to rank
the factors in the order they believe most students would
choose. The factors "opportunity to do work I prefer",
"chances for position advancement", and "size of beginning
salary" are believed to be important by both students and
recruiters. "Activities of firm in community service",
"title of job or position" and "fame or status of firm"
are considered to be unimportant by both students and
recruiters.

The various rankings are compared to assess the
recruiters' conception of the students' interests, and by

inference, the efficacy of the college placement interview in this aspect of information exchange.

It is concluded that the factors used do indicate what students consider in choosing a position with a firm; but they do not satisfactorily indicate the degree to which the interview was useful in conveying this information accurately to recruiters.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

I. THE INTERVIEW

The interview is an oral, face-to-face interaction.
It differs from other communications of this type such as
lectures, conversations, and interrogations in that while
structured it is characterized by voluntary participation
and freedom of action.

The formal interview is firmly institutionalized in
contemporary business practice. It often marks critical
junctures in the lives of practically all individuals in
modern organizations. Formal interviews are usually
focused; that is, they have specific functions or purposes,
usually explicit. Bingham and Moore define the interview
as merely "a conversation with a purpose".[1]

The functions of interviews have been variously
conceptualized. Thayer sees them primarily as the
informative, evaluative, instructive and persuasive (or
influence) functions;[2] Lopez broadly classifies

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[1]Walter Van Dyke Bingham and Bruce Victor Moore, How
to Interview (New York: Harper & Brothers Publishers,
1941), p. 1.

[2]Lee O. Thayer, Administrative Communication
(Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1961),
pp. 135-197.

personnel interviews into information-exchange, problem-solving, and decision-making communications according to interviewers' intentions.[3] Both authors note the overlapping and interactive nature of these functions in interviewing practice. Bingham and Moore say the uses of the interview are fact finding, informing and motivating.[4] Torre states that the early employment interview has three main purposes: ". . . obtaining information not provided or made clear by other means . . . . to acquaint the candidate with facts about the job(s) for which he may be considered, to give him information about working conditions, and to ascertain his interest in being considered for available positions."[5] The later <u>selection</u> interview, in Torre's view, has a number of <u>objectives</u>:

> The objectives of a selection interview, then, may be described in summary: To insure that the applicant fully understands the basis, the nature and the requirements of the post under discussion; to assess possible directions in which the post may be modified, if necessary, to meet the strengths and weaknesses of a particular candidate; to evaluate the job from the point of view of the applicant's career pattern and motivation; to delineate the scope and the limits of job satisfaction in the post from the applicant's point of

[3]Felix M. Lopez, Jr., <u>Personnel Interviewing:</u> <u>Theory</u> <u>and</u> <u>Practice</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 7-12.

[4]Bingham and Moore, <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 27.

[5]Mottram Torre, ed. <u>The Selection of Personnel for</u> <u>International Service</u> (New York: World Federation for Mental Health, 1963), p. 67.

view; to achieve these objectives while providing a
satisfactory experience for the applicant, whether or
not he is selected.[6]

Beach cites the three objectives of the selection interview
most commonly encountered in the personnel literature:
gaining knowledge of the candidate, giving information
about the job and its context, creating goodwill for the
company through making the interview a pleasant experience
for the candidate.[7]

Interviews are typically pre-arranged with respect
to time and place. The roles of the participants are
well-defined. The outcome of the interview, in terms of
its purpose, is most often made explicit by the
participants.

II. THE UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT INTERVIEW

The practice of finding employment for graduating
students at institutions of higher learning has come to be
called "college placement". Most colleges and universities
have employment offices for this purpose, many of which
subscribe to the Journal of College Placement, published on
a non-profit basis by College Placement, Inc. of Bethlehem,
Pennsylvania. Until June, 1965, the Canadian affiliate of

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[6]Ibid., pp. 79-80.

[7]Dale S. Beach, Personnel: Management of People
at Work (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965), p. 243.

this organization was called the University Counselling and

Placement Association. In July, 1965, it changed its name

to the Canadian Association of Student Personnel Services.

The 261 members of this association are employed in

industry as recruiters (205), in universities (25), and in

the National Employment Service (26). All members have the

common interest of "placing" graduating students.[8]

The term "placement interview" has a unique meaning

when used by these people. In normal personnel parlance,

recruitment, selection and placement are considered

respectively as the locating of personnel, the evaluation

and hiring of personnel, and the matching of personnel to

jobs.[9] College placement, however, refers to the placement

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[8]It is interesting that an employer-dominated
organization should dominate a "Student Personnel Services"
organization. Mueller (and others) writing on student
personnel services discuss such topics as admissions;
housing; faculty advisers; campus programs for physical and
mental health; college unions; student government and
publications; discipline; morale; religious programs;
romance, dating and marriage; fraternities and sororities;
financial aid; and foreign students. Placement is given
very little consideration. Mueller concludes her
discussion of placement in two pages, stating that
placement is growing away from the other services in a
distinct professional and ethical environment. Kate Hevner
Mueller, Student Personnel Work in Higher Education
(Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961), pp. 481-482 et
passim.

[9]Paul J. W. Pigors and Charles A. Myers, Personnel
Administration: A Point of View and a Method (New York:
McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965), pp. 360-374; Roger
Bellows, Psychology of Personnel in Business and Industry
(Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961),

of students with employers, not jobs. From the employer's

point of view, therefore, it is recruitment and selection.

This point could be a source of confusion. The college

graduate is very often not "placed" in a job until some

time after hiring. Often training, orientation and testing

programs intervene before the graduate is certainly

"placed" in a job.

"Placement interview", then, has a bit of a

euphemistic ring to it; but it nevertheless has a precise

enough meaning when it is put in the university context.

The employer may think of it as a selection interview for

the purpose of hiring soon-to-be-graduated university

students.

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pp. 209 ff.; George Strauss and Leonard R. Sayles,
Personnel: The Human Problems of Management (Englewood
Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 427-
457; Milton M. Mandell, The Selection Process: Choosing
the Right Man for the Job (New York: American Management
Association, Inc., 1964), p. 12; Roy Willmarth Kelly,
Hiring the Worker (New York: The Engineering Magazine Co.,
1919), pp. 57-122; Thomas Arthur Ryan and Patricia Cain
Smith, Principles of Industrial Psychology (New York: The
Ronald Press Company, 1954), p. 25; and Major H. S. M.
Carver, Personnel Selection in the Canadian Army (Ottawa:
Directorate of Personnel Selection, National Defence
Headquarters, 1945), pp. 2-3.
      All but the last two of these authors use these
words in these senses. Ryan and Smith use the words
"placement" and "classification" synonymously. Another
notable exception to normal personnel usage of these words
occurs in Personnel Selection in the Canadian Army, where
"selection" is used in the usual sense of "placement".
The Army "selects" individuals that they already have in
their pay for various jobs and postings.

The evaluative and persuasive functions of interviews are central to the placement interview. They contribute to the outcome of the interview, or interviews, decisions by the parties. The communication of information perceived to be relevant to evaluation (to decision criteria) is the central process of the placement interview.

In evaluative terms, the placement interview is less one-sided than the normal selection interview in which an applicant seeks a specific job and the interviewer assesses his suitability for that job. That is, the student is normally interviewing a number of prospective employers from whom he may receive a number of offers. There is more emphasis in the placement interview on favourably impressing the applicant with what the employer and the job have to offer. The applicant in the selection interview is apparently largely sold on the company, and the type of position, or he would not be applying. Much of the literature on the evaluation interview is concerned with validity criteria for one-sided selection.

III. A RATIONALE FOR THE INTERVIEW

The interview is a nearly universal practice in selection for employment.[10] There is a great deal of

[10]W. D. Scott, R. D. Clothier, and W. R. Spriegel, Personnel Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company,

evidence to suggest that it is nevertheless markedly deficient as an evaluative device. Most of this evidence concerns the reliability and validity of the interview.[11] That is, different interviewers will not reliably choose the same candidate for a given position.[12] Nor will the same interviewer reliably make the same decision if the information regarding a candidate is present in a different sequence or context.[13]

The validity of the interviewer's evaluation is undermined if the criteria he uses for selection of a candidate are not appropriate for adequate performance on the job, or "success" within the company. The problem of choosing criteria is a complex one, particularly with the

1961), p. 72.

[11]Ralph F. Wagner, "The Employment Interview: A Critical Summary," Personnel Psychology, 1949, 2, 17-46. Twenty-five of 106 articles on interviews were of an experimental nature; twenty of these concerned reliability and/or validity; and Eugene C. Mayfield, "The Selection Interview: A Re-Evaluation of Published Research," Personnel Psychology, 1964, 17, 239-260.

[12]R. S. Woodworth, "Psychological Experience with the Interview," Journal of Personnel Research, 1925, 4, 162-165; H. Gulliksen, Theory of Mental Tests (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1950), pp. 193-218; and J. P. Guilford, Psychometric Methods (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954), p. 279.

[13]J. W. Bruner, "On Perceptual Readiness," Psychological Review, 1957, 64, 123-152; and G. Smith, "Visual Perception: An Event over Time," Psychological Review, 1957, 64, 306-313.

university graduate who is often chosen for his ability to
benefit the company in an indefinite capacity in the
distant future. When objective criteria have been
experimentally set, interviewers' choices have been found
wanting. That is, the interviewer does little better
through selection by interview than he could have done by
actuarial methods.[14]

Lopez points out that validity criteria are often
not correlated.[15] Therefore the value of statistical
validity is limited. This fact, coupled with the doubtful
constancy over time of many indicators of face validity,
magnifies the problem of choosing criteria.

In spite of the protests of some experimenters,[16]

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[14]Edwin E. Ghiselli, "Worker Selection: Concepts
and Problems," Personnel Psychology, 1956, 9, 1-6;
Bellows, op. cit., p. 238; and Laurence Lipsett, Frank P.
Rodgers, and Harold M. Kentner, Personnel Selection and
Recruitment (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1964), p. 94.

[15]Lopez, op. cit., p. 221.

[16]H. L. Hollingworth, Judging Human Character (New
York: D. Appleton & Co., 1922), p. 66; M. S. Vitelles,
Industrial Psychology (New York: W. W. Norton, 1932),
p. 170; G. W. England and D. G. Patterson, "Selection and
Placement: The Past Ten Years," in H. G. Heneman, Jr.,
et al. (eds.), Employment Relations Research (New York:
Harper & Row, Publishers, 1962), p. 62; Marvin D. Dunnette,
"Personnel Management" in P. R. Farnsworth, O. McNemar and
Q. McNemar (eds.), Annual Review of Psychology, 1962, 13,
(Palo Alto: Annual Reviews, Inc., 1962), p. 291; and
Daniel Sydiaha, "Interviewer Consistency in the Use of
Empathic Models in Personnel Selection," Journal of Applied
Psychology, 1962, 46, 344-349.

the interview continues to be very widely and
indiscriminately used and trusted in selection. Reasons
for its popularity have been advanced: Ghiselli and Brown
note the extensive reliance personnel officers place on
the interview as a means of assessment;[17] Bingham, Moore
and Gustad note its supplementary benefits of giving
information and establishing friendly relationships for
the company;[18] Bellows and Estep stress the selection
interview's role as an early communications device for
management;[19] Strauss and Sayles also value the
interview's two-way nature.[20] Lopez states that the
interview has unique flexibility and capacity to deal with
"the broader construct of relevancy which includes many
variables important to the overall decision--administra-
tive feasibility, cost, community and employee relations,
recruitment attractiveness, face validity, and statistical
validity."[21]

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[17]Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence W. Brown,
Personnel and Industrial Psychology (New York: McGraw-
Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 123.

[18]Walter Van Dyke Bingham, Bruce V. Moore and John
W. Gustad, How to Interview (New York: Harper & Brothers,
1959), p. 97.

[19]Roger M. Bellows and M. Frances Estep, Employment
Psychology: The Interview (New York: Rinehart & Company,
Inc., 1954), p. 10.

[20]Strauss and Sayles, op. cit., p. 233.

[21]Lopez, op. cit., p. 221.

If the interview is to be continued in use as a selection device, then we must ask, "How can it be improved?" Some recent research directed toward this end has been concerned not with assessing the reliability and validity of the selection interview as a measuring instrument, but rather with discovering what the interview is. Until we know what really occurs in interviews, there is little possibility for modification to attain specific ends.

IV. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE INTERVIEW

The psychodynamics of interviewing have received little direct study. Most of the theoretical questions in this area would likely need referral to social psychologists.

Work specifically done on actual interviews has understandably (due to the effects of observers) been largely confined to the period since the advent of the tape recorder. Helsel, for instance, did a content analysis from recorded transcripts of the type of questions and categories of information discussed in employment interviews for the selection of office personnel.[22]

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[22] Janet Helsel, A Study of Employment Interviewing Practices Used in the Selection of Office Personnel with Implications for Business Teachers (Doctoral Thesis, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1959. Ann

Webster summarizes the findings of five doctoral

dissertations concerned largely with tape recordings of

Armed Services selection interviews made in the carrying

out of a Defence Research Board project. The nature of

the decision-making process in the interview was under

examination in this work.[23] Pittenger, Hockett and Danehy

taped and transcribed the first five minutes of initial

psychiatric interviews, linguistically coded the results

and examined them systematically.[24] They mentioned the

regrettable technological shortcomings that precluded the

recording of communications through the other sensory

modalities. Only visual phenomena could be partially

taken into account through the medium of the sound film.

Olfactory, taste and touch recordings are impossible. The

film was not made for lack of a kinesicist (an analyst of

body motion) to aid in the study.

In Chapter II the utility of the employment

interview, some recommendations of the "how-to-do-it"

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Arbor: University Microfilms, Inc., 1966).

[23]Edward C. Webster, in collaboration with C. W.
Anderson, Areta H. Crowell, Patricia Rowe, B. M. Spring-
bett, and D. Sydiaha, Decision Making in the Employment
Interview (Industrial Relations Centre, McGill University.
Montreal: The Eagle Publishing Co., Ltd., 1964).

[24]Robert E. Pittenger, Charles F. Hockett and John
H. Danehy, The First Five Minutes (Ithaca, New York: Paul
Martineau, Publisher, 1960).

authors, and the value of traditional and newer approaches will be discussed.

V. A PROBLEM FOR RESEARCH

To discover what occurred during an interview, "The weakest sort of observational procedure is to ask one of the participants, after an interview, for an account of what happened."[25] The study of perception indicates that objective stimuli are very imperfectly recalled. The subjective correlate of an objective phenomena has become, through perceptual and retentive mechanisms, quite another thing. Hence the increasing and logical emphasis on indirect methods for study of the interview.

Kahn and Cannell suggest an indirect indicator of the interviewer's skill.[26] Because exchanges of specific types of information constitute large parts of specific types of interviews, the more able interviewer, the "good listener" lauded by the employment interviewing "how-to-do-it" literature[27] should more accurately perceive and

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[25]Ibid., p. 4.

[26]Robert L. Kahn and Charles F. Cannell, The Dynamics of Interviewing (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960), pp. 166-202.

[27]Bingham and Moore, op. cit., p. 32; Carl R. Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice,

retain information passed along to him in the interview by the respondent. If the information is indeed specific and can somehow be objectively identified, it should be possible to ask the interviewer for his recollections regarding the information concerned, compare them with the actual information given by the respondent, and thereby assess the interviewer's ability to accurately perceive and retain a particular type of information offered to him in the interview.

The author undertook an investigation of this facet of interviewing in the university placement situation. The type of information considered was a group of fifteen factors thought to be important in the decisions of students taking employment. For purposes of easy identification, they will hereinafter be called the "job factors" or "decision factors". They were originally conceived and isolated by Bunin and Odegaard on the basis of frequency of mention in previous studies of the employment decisions of graduating college seniors.[28] Short statements were used in an attempt to

Implications, and Theory (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), pp. 40-41, 54; and Strauss and Sayles, op. cit., p. 227.

[28]Sanford M. Bunin and Carl J. Odegaard, "Relative Importance of Job Factors to Graduating College Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, April, 1961, 20, 50-56.

capture the meaning of distinct and relevant decision criteria.

In the present study graduating seniors were asked, as part of a larger questionnaire, to rank the factors in the order of their importance to them in evaluating a position with a firm. It was expected on the basis of Bunin and Odegaard's and Bunin and Scheyer's[29] findings that there would be considerable agreement among the students, and particularly among certain sub-groups, on the rankings of the factors. If this were in fact found, then a specific piece of information commonly discussed in and important to a great many placement interviews would be identified. The objective piece of information would of course be a statistical representation of the collective opinion of a group of interview respondents.

If a similar statistical representation of the collective opinion of the group of interviewers regarding this piece of information could now be made, then an assessment of the interviewers' abilities to accurately perceive and retain a particular type of information offered to them in the interview would be possible.

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[29] Sanford M. Bunin and Gretchen Scheyer, "Campus Recruiters and Graduating Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, June, 1961, 20, 50-59.

Consequently the interviewers were asked to rank the factors in their order of importance to the student.

A number of conceptual and practical weaknesses, limitations and difficulties are evident in this indirect approach to study of the information-exchange process of the interview. They will be discussed in the chapters dealing specifically with the questionnaire study.

Chapter III orients the investigation done, and outlines the purposes of the study.

Chapter IV deals with the sources of data, methods of procedure and treatment of findings.

Chapter V lays out the statistical analyses. Null hypotheses are put forth. Tables and statistical material are explained and discussed.

Chapter VI is concerned with the limitations of the study undertaken and some likely avenues for further research.

Chapter VII is a summary of findings and conclusions.

CHAPTER II

THE UTILITY OF THE EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

I. INTRODUCTION

"A very intense faith is placed by personnel officers in this method (the interview) of assessing applicants. Although other selection procedures may be judged critically and rejected, one seldom finds the interview rejected, even after it has been carefully evaluated and found deficient."[1]

The primary deficiency of the interview as it has been empirically investigated is lack of validity (in the sense the word is used in psychological testing). Broadly speaking, a "valid" psychological test measures what it purports to measure. Validity is considered to be the ultimate criterion of value for a psychological test through reasoning that follows from E. L. Thorndike's maxim, "If a thing exists, then it exists in some amount. If it exists in some amount, then it can be measured."[2] The extent to which a test measures the psychological

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[1]Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence W. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 123. Parentheses not in original.

[2]E. L. Thorndike, An Introduction to the Theory of Mental and Social Measurements (Teachers College, Columbia University. Lancaster, Pa.: The New Era Printing Co., 1916) pp. 1-6.

"thing" it is supposed to measure is the extent of its validity.

Webster regrets this type of empirical orientation to the interview because it:

> . . . leads to an almost exclusive concern with measuring the relations between criteria and predictive categories, and literally no attention has been given to the psychological processes in the interview. . . . There can be no question that problems of reliability and validity are of fundamental importance to the interview, but there is an indirect as well as a direct approach to them. Until the factors which play a systematic role in determining the final decision of the interviewer are revealed, the limits of reliability and validity cannot be known.[3]

This chapter will be concerned with the important matters of validity and reliability, and more generally with a pragmatic approach to interviewing. It is concerned with what the practitioner wants to know--the advantages and disadvantages of particular practices.

II. VALIDITY

Vernon offers a view of validity with operational meaning for the interview. It is, ". . . that a test measures only itself, but that it is valid in so far as it can be shown to correlate with other observeable

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[3]Edward C. Webster in collaboration with C. W. Anderson, Areta H. Crowell, Patricia Rowe, B. M.Springbett, and D. Sydiaha, Decision Making in the Employment Interview (Industrial Relations Centre, McGill University. Montreal: The Eagle Publishing Co., Ltd., 1964), p. 2.

behavior. . . . That is, its validity lies in the
inferences we are entitled to make from it."[4]

Study of the selection interview's validity has been
conducted generally by specifying some measures of job
success and comparing candidates ranked by interviewers
with their achievement on these measures. Those candidates
ranked higher by interviewers prior to job performance must
do relatively better on the criterion measures of job
success for the interview to be a valid selection process.

Criteria commonly used are job performance rankings
by supervisors,[5] length of time with the organization or on
the job,[6] and size of salary or other quantitative measures
assumed to indicate "job success".

III. RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the stability of interview

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[4]Philip E. Vernon, _Personality Assessment: A Critical Survey_ (London: Methuen & Co. Ltd., 1964), p.213.

[5]Arne Trankell, "The Psychologist as an Instrument of Prediction," _Journal of Applied Psychology_, 1959, 43, 170-175; Robert Glaser, Paul A. Schwarz, and John C. Flanagan, "The Contribution of Interview and Situational Performance Procedures to the Selection of Supervisory Personnel," _Journal of Applied Psychology_, 1958, 42, 69-73; and Forest O. Bell, Alvin L. Hoff and Kenneth B. Hoyt, "A Comparison of Three Approaches to Criterion Measurement," _Journal of Applied Psychology_, 1963, 47, 416-418.

[6]Earl C. Butterfield and Sue A. Warren, "Prediction of Attendant Tenure," _Journal of Applied Psychology_, 1963, 47, 101-103; and Trankell, _op. cit._

outcome, apart from its relation to other behavior or its predictive ability.

The reliable evaluation interview should result in the same assessments when repeated; that is, the same interviewer should reach the same decisions regarding the applicant.

Two or more interviewers should reach the same decisions regarding identical applicants for the same position.

The evaluation made on the basis of one half of the interview should be the same as the evaluation made on the basis of the other half; or, similarly, there should be a consistent response pattern throughout the interview to a particular property of the applicant to be assessed if the interview is to be entirely reliable. In psychological testing the split-half and Kuder-Richardson techniques are used to assess internal consistency of test instruments.[7] The relevance of this aspect of reliability for the interview is difficult to guage.

IV. THE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

ENTERPRISES IN SELECTION INTERVIEWING

It should be noted that reliability and validity are

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[7]Lee J. Cronbach, Essentials of Psychological Testing, 2nd ed., (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960),p.141.

related. That is, the validity of a measure is limited by its reliability.[8] Interviewer error limits the power of interviewer predictions.

Split-half reliability (or internal consistency, or equivalence, as it is variously called in psychological testing) is systematically undermined in the evaluative interview by the importance of primacy of information in decision-making. First impressions bias the interviewer's perception and cognition of subsequent responses from the candidate. In the selection interview specifically this phenomenon has been demonstrated by Springbett.[9] More generally, "When contradictory information is presented in a single communication, by a single communicator, there is a pronounced tendency for those items presented first to dominate the impression received."[10]

It is obvious that the respondent's behavior in the

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[8] Ibid., p. 132:
"There is a rule which states how reliability limits validity: The correlation between the test and an independent criterion can never be higher than the square root of the correlation between two forms of the test. For example, if reliability is .64, validity cannot exceed .80."

[9] B. M. Springbett, "Factors Affecting the Final Decision in the Employment Interview," Canadian Journal of Psychology, 1958, 12, 13-22; and Edward C. Webster, "Decision Making in the Employment Interview," Personnel Administration, 1959, 22, 15-22.

[10] Carl I. Hovland, The Order of Presentation in Persuasion (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1957), p. 133.

interview is not likely to be entirely uniform over the
time taken for the interview. On the basis of chance alone
this is true. When it is further considered that some
individuals take longer than others to interact freely and
spontaneously with strangers, a further systematic
undermining of interview reliability is evident. The early
minutes, and indeed the entire interview are only very
small and unrepresentative samples of the respondents'
behavior. It is dangerous to generalize from samples of
this size to much larger segments of behavior such as job
performance. That a sample of behavior taken in an
interview may be highly atypical and misleading is admitted
by social researchers.[11]

The unreliability of the interview as a measuring
instrument has been noted, although demonstrations of its
invalidity are more striking.

Hollingworth's early study of interviewer
reliability lent impetus to doubt regarding the interview's
efficacy as an evaluative device.[12] He had twelve senior,
experienced sales managers independently rank fifty-seven

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[11]Robert E. Pittenger, Charles F. Hockett and John
H. Danehy, The First Five Minutes (Ithaca, New York: Paul
Martineau, Publisher, 1960), p. 249; and Philip E. Vernon,
Personality Tests and Assessments (New York: Henry Holt
and Company, 1953), p. 21.

[12]H. L. Hollingworth, Vocational Psychology and
Character Analysis (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929).

candidates on suitability for positions as salesmen. Every

candidate received rankings ranging nearly from the top to

the bottom of the list.

The unreliability of the interview in Hollingworth's

study could be attributed either to the interviewers or the

candidates, or both. Crissy, writing twenty-three years

later, could find no experimental evidence in the

literature capable of convicting or acquitting either of

the parties of unreliable behavior.[13] Crissy states,

> There are three fundamental aspects to the question
> of interview reliability: (1) intra-rater consistency,
> i.e., the agreement of the interviewer with himself
> insofar as his appraisals of interviewees are concerned;
> (2) inter-rater consistency, i.e., the agreement among
> interviewers insofar as their respective judgments of
> interviewees are concerned; (3) the consistency of
> behavior elicited in the interview, i.e. the extent to
> which the interviewee behaves and responds in the same
> way to similar stimuli in successive interviews.[14]

For the first and third types, Crissy was unable to find

any empirical evidence. For the second, inter-rater

consistency, a master's thesis by Sternburg is cited which

found the judgments of several interviewers on applicant

traits to have intercorrelational values from .15 to .71.

In the years since 1952 little has been done to

dispel the uncertainty of the prospect of ever gaining

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[13]W. J. E. Crissy, "The Employment Interview:
Research Areas, Methods and Results," Personnel Psychology,
1952, 5, 73-85.

[14]Ibid., p. 74.

interview reliability. In 1965, Lopez wrote:

> In modern times, however, the evidence of the
> fallibility of subjective, interpersonal judgment has
> been so overwhelming that considerable research effort
> has been devoted to the development of more scientific
> approaches to the problem of the selection and placement
> of employees. To improve the quality of the selection
> process and hence the employment decision, emphasis has
> been placed on a more objective approach to the
> description, and evaluation, and the prediction of job
> performance. Aptitude tests, self-descriptive
> personality inventories, projective personality tests,
> situational games, weighted biographical questionnaires,
> and structured interviews have been developed as more
> appropriate and more reliable measures of an employment
> prospect's abilities, achievement, attitudes, and social
> skills.
>
> Despite overly optimistic claims in some quarters,
> no single one of the aforementioned instruments has
> proved to be the final answer to the selection question.
> But in conjunction with other instruments, each
> contributes its proper share to the overall goal of a
> substantially reduced margin of error in selection
> decision-making.[15]

It has been shown that particular interviewers can

very reliably make systematic errors. An early

demonstration of this phenomenon was conducted by Rice. Two

interviewers sought to discover why a number of individuals

were impoverished. The advocate of temperance found sixty-

two per cent of the cases to be due to drink, and seven per

cent due to industrial conditions. The other interviewer,

a socialist, found thirty-nine per cent of the cases to be

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[15]Felix M. Lopez, Jr., Personnel Interviewing:
Theory and Practice (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company,
1965), p. 212.

due to industrial conditions, and twenty-two per cent to excessive drinking.[16] More recent findings by Sydiaha indicate that interviewers among Canadian Army Regular Force personnel officers tend to make errors consistently through using empathy as a basis for decision making.[17] While this means that a particular selection officer's decisions would be reliably biased, the overall selection process would be unreliable due to differences in the empathic models used by different interviewers. Sydiaha recommends: "Explicit, actuarial bases of decision making in the interview. . .", and abandonment of implicit personality theories by interviewers.[18]

The thorniest problem in validating the selection interview is the choice of criterion measures that adequately describe "success" on the job. Tolerably high validity coefficients have been obtained in interviewing, and more particularly in testing suitability for very well described jobs that change little over time and markedly favour candidates with particular traits. The interviewer

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[16]S. A. Rice, "Contagious Bias in the Interview: A Methodological Inquiry," American Journal of Sociology, 1929, 35, 420-423.

[17]Daniel Sydiaha, "Interviewer Consistency in the Use of Empathic Models in Personnel Selection," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1962, 46, 344-349.

[18]Ibid., p. 344.

or tester rates the candidate on these traits at the time
of interviewing. The ratings are subsequently correlated
with some arbitrary indicators of on-the-job performance.
Wagner, in his review of the literature in 1949 mentions
results ranging from .16 to .87 for overall ratings, and
from .09 to .73 for particular trait ratings.[19]

The degree of difference between criterion measures
and actual "success" is of course vital to validity
measurement. Ronan illustrates some of the difficulties
involved.[20] Trades apprentices and journeymen were rated
on eleven criterion measures: shop rating (twelve
categories), school rating (six categories, two raters),
mathematics grade, absence index, injury index, lost time
accidents, grievances, disciplinary actions, promotions,
supervisory ratings and personality disorder. Ronan admits
that, ". . . the selected measures barely scratched the
surface when one considers the total employee at work in a
complex industrial organization." He notes, "That various
criterion measures bear little or no relation is shown
again in this research as in earlier studies. . . .", and
that the study ". . . contains no specific measure of job

[19]Ralph Wagner, "The Employment Interview: A
Critical Summary," Personnel Psychology, 1949, 2, 17-46.

[20]W. W. Ronan, "A Factor Analysis of Eleven Job
Performance Measures," Personnel Psychology, 1963, 16,
pp. 255-267.

skill." The merit of these criterion measures seems to be their amenability to quantitative analysis, and, in Ronan's hope, a stability over time--if not of relevance, at least of specification.

There is considerable doubt, then, that objective criterion measures can adequately represent job success, much less the overall contribution to the organization of individuals. Even in the relatively uncomplicated area of skilled trades, Ronan, for example, was unable to surmount the obstacles to representativeness. In assessing the performance of college graduates, "success" or "contribution to the organization" in all likelihood has a more abstract meaning. The indicators of such success occur at higher levels, over longer periods, and in a more complex setting.

The attention given to the character of criteria over time bears a distinct relation, in the author's view, to the accountant's pursuit of quantification of the business's personnel resources. "Conceptually, the ultimate criterion can apparently be defined as 'the total worth of a man to the company--in the final analysis.' Such an abstraction is not measurable--at least not until the man's total career with an organization has finally been terminated."[21] Accountants are confronted with the

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[21]Robert M. Guion, "Criterion Measurement and

task of measuring, in dollars, the progress of business

organizations over particular intervals. They cannot know

for certain how the business has fared unless it is

liquidated completely and a final reckoning made with only

dollars involved. However, they make assessments from time

to time (most commonly once a year) of the firm's assets

and liabilities and arrive at a dollar figure representing

their best estimate of the firm's profit or loss for the

period under consideration. Although the know-how and

ability of a firm's personnel is undeniably an asset,

present accounting practice does not directly assess its

worth. On the contrary, such "investment" as would

logically appear in an asset account is usually expensed in

the period of its outlay. Recruiting, selection and

training costs are therefore not considered as benefitting

subsequent periods. Some accounting theorists advocate at

least an attempted measurement of the size of that very

important (but highly qualitative) asset, personnel.[22]

As long as businesses are economic organizations,

and their performance is measured primarily in dollars, a

dollar assessment of the contribution of individuals must

Personnel Judgments," Personnel Psychology, 1961, 14, 141-149.

[22] Mandel Gomberg and Arthur Farber, "The Balance Sheet of the Future," The Accounting Review, 1964, 39, 615-617.

logically be possible if there is to be <u>any</u> meaningful
assessment possible. Conceptually, therefore, there exists
some calculus, no doubt extremely complex, that describes
quantitatively the contribution of each member of the
business organization to that organization's overall
performance. The theoretical accountant's counterpart for
the psychologist's ultimate criterion measure of validity
is the individual's net contribution to the firm over the
total length of his association with the firm, expressed in
dollars.

In research practice, criterion measures of validity
are nearly always expressed in terms of some assumed and
indefinite relation to "job success". "Job success", in
turn, bears an indefinite relation to "contribution of the
individual to the firm over the entire length of their
association", the conception of validity considered in the
preceding paragraph. Theoretical validity and common
criterion measures are obviously only distantly and
indefinitely related in this context.

A further difficulty with criterion measures is
their variability over time. Performance by individuals on
these measures may vary markedly after a month, a year, or
five years. Consequently a selection procedure validated
against criteria at each of these times will appear to have
three different validities. This phenomenon has been

demonstrated by Worbois, Ghiselli and Haire, and Bass.[23]

Usually validity studies have an extremely narrow application. They have few implications beyond the particular situation considered in the study. Practically speaking, they are of little or no value to other firms, even those in the same industry. Wagner, in his review of the literature, notes that "The validity and reliability of the interview may be highly specific both to the situation and to the interviewer."[24]

Mayfield, in his more recent review of the literature, notes the lack of comparability of interview researches:

> One of the reasons for the apparent lack of useful knowledge about the selection interview is that most experimental studies have been undertaken to determine the validity of an interview in a particular situation. There is no question that this type of research is very practical and very necessary. However, it does not provide an answer to the question of why a given interview works or doesn't work. Therefore, such

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[23]S. M. Worbois, Predicting Performance of Substation Operators," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1951, 31, 15-19; B. M. Bass, "Further Evidence on the Dynamic Character of Criteria," Personnel Psychology, 1961, 14, 93-97; Edwin E. Ghiselli and M. Haire, "The Validation of Selection Tests in the Light of the Dynamic Character of Criteria," Personnel Psychology, 1960, 13, 225-231. Ghiselli et al state:
"If the desired criterion is ultimate or total performance, there is some question whether an initial criterion measure will itself be a good predictor. If not, validation--against the early criterion is no validation at all."

[24]Wagner, op. cit., p. 42.

studies by themselves do not give us the information necessary to fully understand and improve interviews.[25]

Mayfield goes on to describe a number of experimental designs which do not yield an understanding of their subject matter sufficient to yield implications of a more general nature, i.e. of relevance for other situations. The research designs he cites are the traditional approaches taken to the study of interview validity and reliability.

Wagner (1949) and Mayfield (1964) have made the most significant surveys of the literature regarding selection interviewing for employment. Wagner's first two conclusions were:

1. A great deal of confusion exists as to what can and cannot be accomplished by the interview.

2. Research on the interview is much needed.[26]

Mayfield notes that little has been learned about the interview since Wagner's review, and specifically suggests a de-emphasis of traditional validity and reliability research in favour of two emerging approaches: study of small units of the interview, or microanalysis; and study of the decision-making processes of the interview. In the

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[25]Eugene C. Mayfield, "The Selection Interview: A Re-Evaluation of Published Research," _Per sonnel Psychology_, 1964, _17_, 239-260, p. 241.

[26]Wagner, _op. cit._, p. 42.

former connection he cites the work of Chapple, Bales,

Daniels and Otis, Borgatta and Bales, Muthard, Dipboye,

Robinson, and Matarazzo, Matarazzo, Saslow and Phillips.[27]

In the latter connection Mayfield cites Webster,

Springbett, Anderson, Sydiaha and Rowe.[28]

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[27]E. D. Chapple, "The Interaction Chronograph: Its
Evolution and Present Application," Personnel, 1949, 25,
295-307; R. F. Bales, Interaction Process Analysis: A
Method for the Study of Small Groups (Cambridge: Addison-
Wesley, 1950); H. E. Daniels and J. L. Otis, "A Method for
Analyzing Employment Interviews," Personnel Psychology,
1950, 3, 425-444; E. F. Borgatta and R. F. Bales, "The
Consistency of Subject Behavior and the Reliability of
Scoring in Interaction Process Analysis," American
Sociological Review, 1953, 18, 566-569; J. E. Muthard, "The
Relative Effectiveness of Larger Units Used in Interview
Analysis," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1953, 17, 184-
188; W. J. Dipboye, "Analysis of Counselor Style by
Discussion Units," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1954,
1, 21-26; Francis P. Robinson, "The Dynamics of Communica-
tion in Counseling," Journal of Counseling Psychology,
1955, 2, 163-169; and Ruth G. Matarazzo, J. D. Matarazzo,
G. Saslow and Jeanne S. Phillips, "Psychological Test and
Organismic Correlates of Interviewer Interaction Patterns,"
Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, 56, 329-
338. I would add Janet Helsel, A Study of Employment
Interviewing Practices Used in the Selection of Office
Personnel with Implications for Business Teachers (Doctoral
Thesis, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, 1959.
Ann Arbor: University Microfilms Inc., 1966).

[28]Webster, 1959 and 1964, op. cit.; Springbett, op.
cit.; C. W. Anderson, "The Relation Between Speaking Times
and Decision in the Employment Interview," Journal of
Applied Psychology, 1960, 44, 267-268; D. Sydiaha, "On the
Equivalence of Clinical and Statistical Methods," Journal of
Applied Psychology, 1959, 43, 395-401; and "Bales' Inter-
action Process Analysis of Personnel Selection Interviews,"
Journal of Applied Psychology, 1961, 45, 393-401; Patricia
M. Rowe, "Individual Differences in Selection Decisions,"
Journal of Applied Psychology, 1963, 47, 304-307.

The value of the first, or microanalytic approach is as yet unknown, according to Mayfield, because it is being used for reliability studies almost exclusively. The second, or decision-making approach, is in Mayfield's view of prime importance. He feels it will answer the "how" and "why" questions regarding the interview, the most important failing of interview research to date.

Webster believes that investigation of the decision making process of the interview has a distinct advantage over traditional approaches.

> The literature cited above (historical background of studies of interviewing) failes to relate errors of measurement to decision making models. This is an important omission because it should be possible to take rational steps to correct for error if correlates of decisions are established and the magnitude of their errors assessed. This is particularly important for descriptive models of decision making in order to explain why clinical predictions tend to add nothing to actuarial predictions. "The critical question is why inferences go wrong, not whether inference is a legitimate mode of test interpretation." (Cronbach, 1956).[29]

In a different context, the ten-year study of case method medical education by M. L. Johnson Abercrombie generally confirmed her hypothesis ". . . that we may learn to make better judgments if we can become aware of some of

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[29]Webster, 1964, op. cit., citing L. J. Cronbach, "Assessment of Individual Differences," in P. R. Farnsworth, ed., Annual Reviews of Psychology, 1956, 7, 173-196 (Palo Alto, Calif.: Annual Review, Inc., 1956). Parentheses not in original.

the factors that influence their formation.[30]

In the field of psychological testing there is currently some dissatisfaction with the progress being made. Robert Ebel of the Educational Testing Service proposes that ". . . we stop beating our heads against a stone wall and step back to look for a way over it or around it":[31]

> Validity has long been one of the major deities in the pantheon of the psychometrician. It is universally praised, but the good works done in its name are remarkably few. Test validation, in fact, is widely regarded as the least satisfactory aspect of test development. For this the blame is usually placed on the lack of good criterion measures. To assuage their guilt feelings about inadequate test validation, test constructors from time to time urge their colleagues to go to work on the criterion problem. . . . The basic difficulty in validating many tests arises, we believe, not from inadequate criteria but from logical and operational limitations of the concept of validity itself. We are persuaded that faster progress will be made toward better educational and psychological tests if validity is given a much more specific and restricted definition than is usually the case, and if it is no longer regarded as the supremely important quality of every mental test.[32]

Ebel believes that the multiplex definitions of validity extant do not permit clear thinking in research; that validity has consistently proved to be the quality

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[30]M. L. Johnson Abercrombie, *The Anatomy of Judgment: An Investigation into the Processes of Perception and Reasoning* (London: Hutchinson & Co. Ltd., 1960), p. 17.

[31]Robert L. Ebel, "Must All Tests be Valid?" *American Psychologist*, 1961, 16, 640-647, p. 646.

[32]*Ibid.*, p. 640.

most difficult to attain in test development (". . . when someone tries to do a job the wrong way, nature often teaches him his error by refusing to let the job be done"[33]); that the physical sciences show no concern for the validity of their measurements, only discussing operational definitions and limitations of measurement. "To ask about the validity of the basic method of measurement, which provides the operational definition of the thing being measured, would seem to most physical scientists as it does to us to be asking a meaningless question."[34]

The problem of criterion measures is not discussed or recognized by Wagner or Mayfield, but Ebel states that it is critical and often overlooked: "The ease which which test developers can be induced to accept as criterion measures quantitative data having the slightest appearance of relevance to the trait being measured is one of the scandals of psychometry."[35]

McCord and Hodgson also criticize conventional criterion measures.[36]

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[33]Ibid., p. 641

[34]Ibid., p. 642

[35]Ibid.

[36]Mac McCord, "Observations on Validity Criteria: A Problem in Psychological Evaluation," Personnel Journal,

V.   WHAT SHOULD THE INTERVIEW BE IN SELECTION?

What Should be Said?   Some authors advocate rigid

questionnaire type interviews:

> An interview, regardless of its length or purpose,
> should be conducted according to a standardized form.
> This prevents aimless rambling, lengthy digressions, and
> the possibility of omitting important areas.[37]

> Research on the value of the interview for assessing
> personality and occupational fitness is reviewed. It is
> concluded that the most valuable interview is that which
> uses a standardized form, designed to assess complex,
> dynamic constellations of traits rather than relatively
> isolated, static traits.[38]

The National Industrial Conference Board 1954

report, Recruiting and Selecting Employees, states that the

trend is toward more rigid forms for employment interviews.

Logical (not psychological) reasons are advanced for the

planned interview.

> If the interview is important and worth doing at
> all, it is argued, it is worth some forethought and
> planning. This means setting the stage and following
> through a prescribed course of action. The interviewer
> is ready for the applicant. He has the job

1963, 42, 286-288:   "The inherent danger is that validity
criteria may themselves lack validity!" (p. 288); Richard
W. Hodgson, "Personality Appraisal of Technical and
Professional Applicants," Personnel Psychology, 1964, 17,
167-187. Hodgson regrets the loss of information necessary
in conventional studies (p. 186).

[37]Wagner, op. cit., p. 42.

[38]K. A. Yonge, "The Value of the Interview: An
Orientation and a Pilot Study," Journal of Applied
Psychology, 1956, 40, 25-31, p. 30.

specifications clearly in mind. He has learned as much
as possible about the applicant in advance. He knows
what additional information is needed that can best be
obtained directly from the applicant during the
interview. And he knows how it can be interpreted and
evaluated in the light of the job requirements.[39]

The authors suggest the possibility that "Eventually
the objective approach will take over completely, putting
the interviewer out of business!"[40]

The recommendations of a number of authors may be
contrasted with those of the structured-interview advocates.

This finding indicates that appraisers should
encourage employees to express themselves during the
appraisal interview. Appraisers can encourage employees
to participate by using such nondirective techniques as
reflecting feelings and eliciting ideas from appraisers
through exploratory questions.[41]

Maier agrees with Kirk in advocating for selection
the nondirective techniques put forth by Rogers for
interviewing in counseling and therapy.[42] Maier
particularly wishes to point out the futility of a single

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[39]National Industrial Conference Board, Inc.,
Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 144, Recruiting and Select-
ing Employees (New York: National Industrial Conference
Board, Inc., 1954), p. 63.

[40]Ibid., p. 63.

[41]E. Bruce Kirk, "Appraisee Participation in
Performance Interviews," Personnel Journal, 1965, 44, 22-25,
p. 25.

[42]N. R. F. Maier, The Appraisal Interview: Objec-
tives, Methods and Skills (New York: John Wiley & Sons,
Inc., 1958), pp. 2-3; and Carl R. Rogers, Client-Centered
Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory
(Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 5.

structured form interview for the accomplishment of the

diversity of objectives, some conflicting, that are nearly

always a fact of the appraisal interview.

Oldfield states that in order to initiate and

maintain rapport, the interviewer must attune and

accommodate himself to the psychological processes of the

respondent. There is little possibility that a structure

decided on beforehand could anticipate entirely the

progression of interactive processes that is the

interview.[43]

Sidney and Brown do not even mention the structured

questionnaire-type interview in their discussion of

selection.[44]

Fear, in another how-to-do-it publication, gives

his view of structuring interviews:

> Types of Interviews. For all practical purposes,
> interviews may be divided into three types: the direct
> interview, the indirect interview, and the patterned
> interview. The direct interview is one in which the
> interviewer maintains tight control, generally firing a
> barrage of limited and specific questions at the
> interviewee. This is often referred to as the
> "question-and-answer approach". The technique enables
> one to amass a large body of factual data in a short
> period of time, but falls far short of the mark in

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[43]R. C. Oldfield, The Psychology of the Interview,
4th ed., (London: Methuen & Co. Ltd., 1951), esp. p.
67.

[44]Elizabeth Sidney and Margaret Brown, The Skills of
Interviewing (London: Tavistock Publications (1959)
Limited, 1961), p. 73-78.

getting at the candidate's generalized attitudes, traits, and habit patterns. In the direct interview, the applicant is on his guard and hence usually screens his remarks, giving answers that are calculated in his opinion to place him in the best possible light. In this type of interview, the person usually feels "on the spot," with the result that the atmosphere is likely to become strained. Feeling like a man who has been cross-examined on the witness stand, the person frequently leaves with an unpleasant reaction to the interview situation.

In the indirect interview, there is usually very little control on the part of the interviewer. He permits the applicant to run with the ball as the latter sees fit, interjecting only occasional questions. True, this type of interview often results in findings that throw light on the candidate's attitudes, traits, and habit patterns. Since the man is permitted to talk about anything or everything that comes to mind, however, the discussion is almost completely unstructured and without any kind of system. This means that it is often quite impossible to cover all theimportant areas of the applicant's background within a reasonable period of time. Hence, the interviewer faces the task of making his decision on the basis of inadequate and incomplete information.

To our way of thinking, neither of the above two methods is appropriate to the business and industrial situation. Consequently, we favor the patterned interview which is actually a merger of both techniques. Here the conversation is guided adroitly by the interviewer, but the interviewee is encouraged to speak freely and at length about _relevant_ topics. Control of the interview is maintained so that all important areas of the applicant's background can be covered systemati-cally, but the information is obtained in an indirect manner. By adroit wording of comments and questions, and by reflecting the applicant's feelings, _spontaneous information_ can be obtained without having to ask direct or pointed questions and without giving the applicant the feeling that he is being grilled or cross-examined. The patterned interview discussed in this book is referred to as the _evaluation interview_ to distinguish it from other types of patterned interviews.[45]

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[45]Richard A. Fear, _The Evaluation Interview_:

Richardson, Dohrenweld and Klein advocate another method of fence-sitting on this issue:

> In line with our thesis that there is no one correct way to interview, we believe there is no one optimal set of interviewer characteristics. Rather, the skills required of the interviewer, his role, and his personal characteristics may vary widely, depending on the form of interview selected, its purpose, the subject matter, and the characteristics of the respondents.[46]

The question of what should be said during the selection interview has obviously not been definitively answered. In the light of the research done, perhaps the most reasonable approach to the problem is the tailoring of an interview form to the particular situation in which it is to be used. Subsequently an assessment of its effectiveness can be made to the taste of the user.

For What Should the Interview Be Used? The fact that interviews are used to select people for everything from sandwich-board carrying to high-level executive functions is indicative of general and indiscriminate advocacy of the interview for selection purposes. Research has suggested more specific uses for the interview.

Wagner writes: "Finally, the interview as an evaluation tool may be useful in three situations:

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Predicting Job Performance in Business and Industry (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958), pp. 24-26.

[46]Stephen A. Richardson, Barbara Snell Dohrenweld and David Klein, Interviewing: Its Forms and Functions (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965), p. 2.

(1) where rough screening is sufficient or (2) where the number of applicants is too small to justify or permit the development of more scientifically exact procedures; and (3) where certain traits can be evaluated more accurately by means of an interview than by other means."[47]

Yonge concludes that the interview should only be used to acquire specific, necessary knowledge of the applicant unavailable through more objective psychological tests or through the application form.[48]

Carr disagrees with Yonge in maintaining that the candidate's work history should be a part of the interview as well as the application form. "A routine procedure that involves a critical inquiry into every phase of the following: work history, personality study, and educational history should enable the personnel interviewer to make a good prognosis about the applicant."[49]

Campbell, Prien and Brailey reported the results of a study wherein trained interviewers, using patterned interviews, rated ninety-five men and women for prospective over-all performance in clerical tasks. One of their conclusions was:

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[47]Wagner, op. cit., p. 44.

[48]Yonge, op. cit., p. 27.

[49]A. M. Carr, "An Inner View of the Interview," Personnel Journal, 1965, 44, 193-197.

The results of this study are substantially in agreement with the findings of other researchers. That is, the interview can be, and is, a useful tool in the employment procedure to obtain facts and to orient the prospective employee. However, as a predictive measure, its value is limited and questionable. In this particular case, the Gordon Personal Profile scales show substantially higher validity.[50]

Mayfield, in his recent and comprehensive review, concludes:

A general suitability rating based on an unstructured interview with no prior information provided has extremely low inter-rater reliability, especially in an employment situation. This was originally shown by Scott (1915) and by other investigators more recently (e.g. Uhrbrock, 1948). In other words, the interview as normally conducted in a selection situation is of little value.[51]

Textbook writers in the field conceive of the functions of the employment interview as generally being those of the gathering of information for the selection decision, the giving of information to the applicant for purposes of his decision making, and the furtherance of public relations for the firm whether or not the applicant is accepted.[52] It seems that only the first of these general functions has been empirically investigated to any

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[50]J. T. Campbell, E. P. Prien and L. G. Brailey, "Predicting Performance Evaluations," Personnel Psychology, 1960, 13, 435-440, p. 439.

[51]Mayfield, op. cit., p. 249.

[52]Walter Van Dyke Bingham and Bruce Victor Moore, How to Interview (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941), p. 1; and Dale S. Beach, Personnel: The Management of People at Work (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965), p. 243.

extent。 The interview has apparently been found wanting in its fulfillment of this function; at the least researchers are not content with its performance.

It could be that the emphasis on this aspect of the employment interview is a manifestation of a "What's in it for me?" attitude on the part of employers. That is, they tend to support research that has more direct implications for their welfare.

The widespread confidence in the interview displayed by interviewers in the face of the denials of researchers regarding its predictive efficacy could have something to do with its usefulness in the fulfillment of other functions. It may be that the interview is uniquely suited to the dissemination of information desired by the respondent/ candidate, and similarly suited to the "amking of friends" for the company whatever the outcome of the interview (in terms of decisions) may be。 Its excellence in these respects may blind practitioners to its defects.[53]

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[53]As noted in Chapter I, there is an endless list of benefits claimed to be the result of the interview. Each author seems to have his personal view of the functions of the interview, and accordingly his own view of the interview's advantages. Suffice it to add the view of one last reviewer of this study area. Crissy, op. cit., p。 73:

"The interview continues to be the most widely used personnel selection method in private industry despite the development of other tools and techniques for appraising human talents. There are manifold reasons for this preference. The more important considerations include: (1) the supplementary, non-evaluative functions

In Chapter IV some preliminary findings regarding the second general function are discussed as they occurred in the author's investigation. If the competition for university graduates of the recent past and the present continues, employers may find themselves more avidly seeking methods of informing students about, and interesting them in, positions with their firms. One of the most likely avenues for this effort would of course be the interview.

There are other areas of controversy regarding the selection interview. Probably the most common are: that concerned with the qualities and approaches of a good interviewer;[54] the body of research and argument concerned

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served by the interview; (2) an almost universal conviction on the part of supervisory and managerial personnel that they are good "pickers of men"; (3) the expectation on the part of job applicants of personal treatment such as is accorded in the interview."

[54]Rogers, op. cit., pp. 19-64; Wallace Burch, "Conducting a Productive Interview," Personnel Journal, 1962, 41, 285-286; George P. Hill, "From the Interviewer's Side of the Desk," Personnel Journal, 1962, 41, 115-116; Richard H. Magee, "The Employment Interview--Techniques of Questioning," Personnel Journal, 1962, 41, 241-245; E. M. Christensen, "In-Plant Interviewing of College Applicants," Personnel Journal, 1964, 43, 189-193; E. Bruce Kirk, op. cit.; Thomas M. Carter, "The Placement of Qualified College Graduates in Appropriate Careers," Personnel Journal, 1963, 43, 72-77; Annett Garrett, Interviewing: Its Principles and Methods (New York: Family Welfare Association of America, 1942), pp. 17-20; Abercrombie, op. cit., p. 121; Robert Saltonstall, "What Employees Want From Their Work," in Edward C. Bursk, ed., Human Relations for Management (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), p. 330; Wesley Wiksell, Do They Understand You? (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960); Robert L. Kahn and Charles F. Cannell, The Dynamics

with the interview's context--whether or not it should be
used with psychological tests, or with particular
psychological tests, and whether or not the application
form should be read prior to the interview;[55] the relative
merits of the single interview and the panel interview;[56]
the number and kind of interviews to be used in a series;[57]
the amount of talking that should be done by the interviewer
and by the respondent;[58] and the "halo effect".[59]

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of _Interviewing_ (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960);
Rowe, _op. cit._; and Glenn A. Bassett, "Manager and
Candidate: Interview or Guessing Game?" _Personnel_, 1965,
_42_, 8-16.

[55]J. C. Denton, "The Validation of Interview-Type
Data," _Personnel Psychology_, 1964, _17_, 281-287; Hodgson, _op.
cit._, esp. p. 178; Trankell, _op. cit._, esp. p. 174; Glaser,
Schwarz and Flanagan, _op. cit._; Beach, _op. cit._, p. 244;
Vernon, 1953, _op. cit._, pp. 83-100; and Roger M. Bellows and
Frances M. Estep, _Employment Psychology: The Interview_ (New
York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1954), pp. 57-77, 133-192.

[56]United States Office of Strategic Services, _Assess-
ment of Men: Selection of Personnel for the Office of
Strategic Services_ (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1948)
p. 40; Richard S. Uhrbrock, "The Personnel Interview,"
Personnel Psychology, 1948, _1_, 273-292; Mottram Torre (ed.)
The Selection of Personnel for International Service (New
York: World Federation for Mental Health, 1963), pp. 72-74;
and Bellows and Estep, _op. cit._, pp. 248-260.

[57]George K. Bennett "What Do We Really Know About
Executive Selection?" American Management Association Report
No. 50, _Looking Ahead in Labor Relations_ (New York:
American Management Association, 1960); Uhrbrock, _op. cit._,
p. 277; and Bellows and Estep, _op. cit._, pp. 1-24.

[58]Uhrbrock, _op. cit._, p. 287; Anderson, _op. cit._; and
Daniels and Otis, _op. cit._

[59]Donald M. Johnson and Robert N. Vidulich,

VI.   THE COLLEGE PLACEMENT INTERVIEW

Very little empirical research has been done regarding
the placement interview. The literature is mostly comprised
of the opinions of practitioners. Admitting that it is
often unwise to make inferences from research in one area to
questions in another, there are nevertheless some logical
implications of the related research noted that could be
considered.

Mandell has written an excellent summary description
of the evaluative properties of the placement interview:

> The typical campus interview is only 20 to 30
> minutes in length, and even this brief period is
> shortened by the fact that the recruiter often has not
> received or reviewed the student's resume in advance and
> so must look at it on the spot. Also, he too often uses
> part of the time to "sell" his job and his organization
> instead of evaluating the candidate.
>
> The second major problem in evaluation is the
> unreliability of college grades, coupled with the fact
> that professors base their evaluations on classroom, not
> work, performance. In addition, a campus interview--
> unlike most--is designed to predict performance 10 and
> 20 years hence but is conducted at a time when the
> interviewee's attitudes, interests, and temperament are
> not yet fixed. In other words, this is a situation in

"Experimental Manipulation of the Halo Effect," *Journal of
Applied Psychology*, 1956, 40, 130-134; P. M. Symonds, "Notes
on Rating," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1952, 9, 188-195;
E. L. Thorndike, "A Constant Error in Psychological
Ratings," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1920, 4, 25-29;
Daniel M. Johnson, "Reanalysis of Experimental Halo
Effects," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1963, 47, 46-47;
Sydiaha, *op. cit.*, 1962; and Bellows and Estep, *op. cit.*,
p. 113.

which sound evaluation is impossible.

Treating these obstacles as a challenge, the recruiter might use the campus interview as a limited rejection device, not as a selection method; get to know the best students in advance of the recruiting season through informal discussion with professors and placement officers; obtain full transcripts and professors' evaluations as well as scores on standard tests; and arrange for a second interview and, preferably, a plant visit for those who survive the initial screening. Beyond this, the company might consider the administration of its own tests to determine interests, intelligence, and relevant knowledge (the last is particularly useful when students have taken only a few courses in the field of knowledge relevant to the job). Placement officers criticize the use of brief tests by inexperienced recruiters, but they also note that companies which use tests "do a better job than those that do not." Finally, there should be interviews with at least two or three additional company officials.

The organization will want to make certain, by means of research studies, that the correct factors are being evaluated. For example, a study by the Bell System utilized the records of 17,000 employees who were graduates of accredited colleges. The criterion was the salary achieved by college graduates with the same length of service. The results contradict many of the cliches of college recruiters. In summary: Academic standing is the best predictor of the criterion; the best men academically are more superior to the middle third than the middle third is superior to the bottom third. Academic standing is more meaningful if the quality of the college is taken into account. Extracurricular achievement, when defined as real activity, not merely membership, is related to salary progress and is "somewhat compensating for lower rank in class . . . but it is not by any means as strong a predictor as . . . scholastic achievement." And neither percentage of college expense earned nor major subject is predictive. In presenting these findings, Chairman Frederick R. Kappel of A T & T concluded:

"There will always be some mistakes made in the hiring of people. The question is--how can we make as few mistakes as possible? And how can we disregard the evidence that confronts us?

"When you hire a man of high intelligence but low
grades, in effect you have to bet that a drive he
hasn't yet shown will show after he goes to work.
If, on the other hand, you are considering a
high-scholarship man, your bet is that a drive
already demonstrated will be sustained."[60]

The requirement that the campus interview fulfill
many functions (at least the three of getting information,
giving information, and making friends) complicates to a
possibly prohibitive degree the research design necessary
to answer questions regarding a particular function. Two
unpublished tape recording studies by Sydiaha (done in an
effort to overcome difficulties of the type suggested) were
unsuccessful, their design apparently being incapable of
isolating relevant information.[61]

Mandell implies a great problem with validity
criterion measures when he notes that performance of the
applicants in the distant future is the real object of
evaluation.

In suggesting that the campus interview be a "limited
rejection device", Mandell is only recommending an approach

[60]Milton M. Mandell, The Selection Process: Choosing
the Right Man for the Job (New York: American Management
Association, Inc., 1964), pp. 154-155; citing From the World
of College to the World of Work (New York: American Tele-
phone & Telegraph Company, 1962), p. 10.

[61]D. Sydiaha, op. cit., 1959; Webster, op. cit.,
1964, citing D. Sydiaha, The Relation Between Actuarial and
Descriptive Methods in Personnel Appraisal. Unpublished
Doctoral Dissertation, McGill University, Montreal, 1958.

that is apparently a psychological fact anyway.[62]

Mandell's advocacy of psychological tests, application forms and other historical data as well as additional interviews, is in line with the direction of research findings--generally, the more known about the candidate, the better the selection decision is likely to be. Mandell suggests summer employment of likely candidates before graduation as "the ideal solution to the problem of evaluation".[63]

The cost of a recruiting program is of course an important factor. Mandell cites, in 1956, a cost-per-graduate-hired estimate ". . . $50 to $12000 depending on the number of schools visited, the distances travelled, and the total number of graduates hired."[64] The National Industrial Conference Board reports the results of a survey of 106 companies regarding their recruitment costs in 1955. The figures ranged from fifty dollars per recruit (two companies) to two thousand dollars per recruit (four

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[62]B. I. Bolster and B. M. Springbett, "The Reaction of Interviewers to Favorable and Unfavorable Information," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1961, 45, 97-103, p. 102:
"First of all, there is clear-cut evidence that shifts in rating in the direction of rejection are more easily induced than shifts in the direction of acceptance."

[63]Mandell, op. cit., p. 155.

[64]Ibid., p. 156.

companies). The accounting methods used to assess these costs are indeterminate. The modal figures given were three hundred dollars and four hundred dollars.[65] With the increasing demand for university graduates in business, the costs of recruiting are probably rising. The Wall Street Journal of March 9, 1966 reports the experience of a relatively successful college recruiter for Socony Mobil Oil Company, Inc. He estimates a cost of one thousand dollars per graduate hired for his company.[66]

The amount of money involved, and the importance of technological competence in an economy importantly characterized by accelerating technology, dictate a deep concern on the part of business for the efficient and productive recruitment of university-trained personnel. Little is really known about generally valid approaches to the problems in the area. Mandell and others cite commonly useful techniques, but they can be considered only as tentative. The individual company must analyze its own needs and situation, and through a trial-and-error process,

[65]National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 152, Employment of the College Graduate. (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1956), p. 32.

[66]Richard Martin, "The Grad Hunt: Recruiters Seek to Hire More Students as Draft Cuts Down the Supply," The Wall Street Journal, Vol. XLVI, No. 103, Wednesday, March 9, 1966, p. 1.

eventually learn what will work tolerably well.

The recruiter in most instances seems to be a combination salesman/selector. Success in both endeavours is more a matter of art than science. Their unusual combination probably requires a rare virtuosity for success. It is difficult to detect much science in the following techniques of two apparently successful employee interviewers. The first was cited in 1918 by Kelly. It concerns an employment interviewer's description of how he and his colleagues judge applicants:

> ... by fundamental phrenological standards. A
> firm steady eye indicates honesty and reliability
> and a shifty eye indicates shiftiness of character.
> With most of us, however, the color of the eye as
> yet remains of no significance. We judge by the set
> of the chin, the shape of the mouth, the courteous
> vigor of the handgrip, the individual's dress and
> bearing.[67]

Also of interest are statements made by the Socony Mobil man and cited in The Wall Street Journal:

> "I'm here to find out about you, not to wave a big
> red horse around and tell you how great we are."

> "If he (the student) likes the cut of your sail at
> the beginning you get rapport and the guy will level
> with you. Otherwise, its hard to tell how honest a
> guy is being once he turns professional interviewee,
> sometime around the tenth interview. By then he's had
> the course--he knows how to shake hands, keep eye
> contact and grimace at the proper times. He might not
> know any more about what he wants to do, but he sure

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[67]Roy Willmarth Kelly, Hiring the Worker (New York: The Engineering Magazine Co., 1919), p. 79.

will tell you exactly what he knows you want to hear."[68]

There seems to be a definite awareness of structured and patterned interviews on the part of interview-seasoned graduating seniors. The benefits such approaches might hold for the selection function are probably outweighed by its disadvantages in the discharge of other functions.

It is difficult to imagine how any form of communication but the interview could handle the variety of circumstances and objectives characteristic of the college placement situation. The efficiency and effectiveness of other methods may dictate their use in the case of particular important functions. For instance, other interviews, weighted application blanks and psychological tests may be appropriate for the selection of candidates to be enrolled in an expensive company training program.

Though the interview may not fulfill all the functions it is called upon to fulfill to everyone's satisfaction (as conversation does not generally fulfill all the functions of communication to everyone's satisfaction) it is nevertheless the only reasonable communication medium for the college placement situation. There is presently well-founded hope for its improvement, through study of its psychological processes.

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[68]Martin, loc. cit.

CHAPTER III

THE PURPOSES OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The central event of an interview is an exchange of information between or among the parties. In the campus placement interview the student is always seeking information regarding a position with a firm. The interviewer is always interested in providing the information the student seeks.

The interview would appear to be an excellent medium for the exchange of information. It has all the elements of a good communication system: an information source to encode and emit a signal; a channel to convey the signal; a receiver to decode and interpret the signal; opportunity for immediate and ongoing feedback to the source regarding how accurately and completely the signal was received. Furthermore, because the placement interview is conducted face-to-face and in private, there is a minimum of noise to be overcome. The possibility of misunderstanding is diminished by redundancy of transmission through other sensory modalities; primarily, of course, visual cues are important in this respect.

The placement interview apparently has striking potential for effective and efficient communication.

However, it has been suggested that campus recruiters do not know what sorts of information students are interested in.[1] Provided that individual students are interested in essentially the same information regarding positions with firms (and there are indications that it is so[2]), this would then suggest an inability of the placement interview to properly fulfill one of its basic functions. In spite of repeated contact with students seeking with varying zeal particular types of information, recruiters are unaware of the relative importance attached to these types of information by the students.

Social psychologists have shown that perception and retention of information interpersonally encountered is subject to distortion through social, psychological and contextual mechanisms. It has also been shown that repeated messages are better retained.

The first objective of the investigation undertaken was to discover whether or not campus recruiters were aware of the information students sought in interviewing for a position with a firm. Prior to this determination it was

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[1]Sanford M. Bunin and Carl J. Odegaard, "Relative Importance of Job Factors to Graduating College Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, April, 1961, 20, 50-56.

[2]Sanford M. Bunin and Gretchen Scheyer, "Campus Recruiters and Graduating Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, June, 1961, 20, 50-59.

necessary to first determine that students, or particular groups of students, did in fact seek the same sorts of information. Second, it was necessary to determine that recruiters, or particular groups of recruiters, did in fact agree on what they thought students sought in the way of information. If the two groups were each homogeneous in their views, they could be meaningfully compared.

Hypotheses were advanced for testing the homogeneity of samples: the individual rankings of arts students are related; the individual rankings of the engineering students are related; the individual rankings of the commerce students sampled in the middle of the recruiting season are related; the individual rankings of the post-recruiting season sample of commerce students are related; the individual rankings of the students sampled (arts, engineering, and commerce aggregated) are related; the individual rankings of the mid-recruiting season sample of recruiters are related; the individual rankings of the late recruiting season sample of recruiters are related; the individual rankings of the recruiters (aggregated) are related. These hypotheses are stated in the null form (Nul Hypotheses I to VIII) and tested in Chapter V.

If it was further found that interviewers incorrectly perceived and/or inaccurately retained important information commonly discussed in the interview, then it

might be inferred that the decision-making functions of the
interview were contingently impaired. That is, the quality
of decisions is probably highly dependent on the quality of
the information they are based upon. Poor information will
yield poor decisions.

It might also be inferred (on the basis of
inaccurate information retention) that psychosocial noise
had, in the placement interview situation, undermined the
soundness of the interview as a communication model.

The hypothesis advanced for testing the accuracy of
the recruiters' rankings was, "The rankings of the
recruiters and students taken together are related." It
is stated in the null form (Null Hypothesis IX) and
tested in Chapter V.

In order to examine the effect of experience in
this aspect of interviewing, it was decided to compare
interviewer samples of groups of individuals with varying
placement interview experience on their impressions of the
information students sought. Such a procedure might yield
inferences for the effect of repetition in interview
communication. Relevant data is summarized in Table XVII
in Chapter V.

The primary objectives of the investigation then,
were concerned with the accuracy of perception and
retention (on the part of interviewers) of information

obtained in the interview from respondents.

A secondary series of objectives revolves around the face validity of the list of decision factors. What <u>do</u> graduating seniors seek in a position with a firm? Are there systematic variations in the information sought by objectively identifiable groups? That is, do engineering graduates seek one thing, commerce graduates another? Do married students seek positions and companies palpably different from those sought by single students? Can a recruiter predict what information will interest the son of a labourer? Or the son of a professional man? Answers to such questions are of importance to recruiters and college placement officials. Relevant data is presented in Chapter V.

Face validity is a dangerous thing. To use it we must assume the individual means what he says, and that he takes the questions to mean nearly the same thing the question author and all the other questionnaire respondents take them to mean. These assumptions may very easily be unfounded.

Nevertheless conventional inductive reasoning does not practically deny the value of accepting what a person says as being that which he means; nor further, of even being that which is true about him. With further apology delayed until Chapter VI, then, these findings will be

discussed.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY FOR THE INVESTIGATION

I. THE PRETEST STUDY

Sources of Data

Students. In July, 1965, a sample of fifty students
of the Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce was
chosen randomly from a list of the students supplied by the
Faculty. Each was mailed a questionnaire form identical to
that in Appendix A (pages 121 to 125). A covering letter
(Appendix A, page 126) was enclosed with the questionnaire
along with a stamped, return-addressed envelope. Twenty-
seven questionnaires were returned.

Employers. In July, 1965, a representative of the
National Employment Service distributed the employer
questionnaire form (Appendix A, pages 127 to 129) by mail
to a number of employers who regularly interviewed students
at the University of Alberta. The letterhead of the
National Employment Service University of Alberta Student
Placement Office was used for the covering letter in the
expectation that by so doing a better response would be
gained. This expectation was borne out when all but two of
the companies contacted replied, for a total of thirty-three

employer responses.

Method of Procedure

Students. In the anticipation that a number of factors might, it would overtly appear, affect an individual's choice of position with a firm, the author wished to devise questions that would briefly and innocuously elicit information regarding the students' sex, age, marital status, and socioeconomic background. Accordingly a number of questions were composed and ordered on a form, along with the fifteen factors for ranking isolated by Bunin et al[1] and a check question (appearing after the factors) designed to elicit the respondents' consideration of factors other than those listed. After discussion of the structure and ordering of the questions with members of the faculty and a number of graduate students of the Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce, the pretest questionnaire was cast in the form shown in Appendix I (pages 121 to 125). There appeared the possibility of ambiguity in a number of the questions, but it was decided to try this form in the pretest to discover if the students would easily

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[1]Sanford M. Bunin and Carl J. Odegaard, "Relative Importance of Job Factors to Graduating College Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, April, 1961, 20, 50-56.

understand and answer the questions.

The returned questionnaires were complete in all respects. Interviews with a number of respondents indicated that they had little or no difficulty understanding the questions. One objected to the length of the ranking question, complaining that there was little to choose among the five or six least important items.

Employers. In the expectation that the work experience and capacity of an interviewer might influence or be correlated with his impressions of student interview respondents, the author attempted to devise questions that would elicit data relevant to such hypotheses. In addition, of course, the interviewer was asked how he felt students would rank the factors, and apart from the listed factors, what he felt they considered important in taking a position with a firm.

Again, after consultation with faculty and graduate students in the Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce, a questionnaire in the form shown in Appendix A (pages 127 to 129) was settled upon.

Two employers did express dissatisfaction with Question No. 4, claiming that they did not understand its meaning. One employer did not rank the factors at all, merely listing the three he felt that students should

consider as important. Another employer ranked only his
first five choices among the factors. Of thirty-three
responses, then, twenty-six were usable for statistical
analysis.

Treatment of Findings

Students. The returned forms were read for a
qualitative assessment of the responses. It was decided
that no decision factor was mentioned frequently enough
to warrant inclusion among those to be ranked.

Kendall's coefficient of concordance W was used to
statistically test the homogeneity of the sample. The
relationship of the individual rankings was established as
significant at the .001 level.

Although the sample sizes were too small for
statistical significance, it appeared to the author that
the income and occupation level of the respondent's parents
might systematically bias his choices in favour of social
or status considerations, and away from economic
considerations.

At any rate the questionnaire seemed to be accept-
able to respondents and productive of the desired
information. It was therefore decided to retain it intact
for the actual experiment. This decision had the advantage
of making possible a longitudinal study of samples from the

same population of students should it appear informative to do so.

Employers. The returned questionnaires were read for qualitative assessment. It was not possible to identify any single decision factor worthy of inclusion among those to be ranked.

Kendall's coefficient of concordance W was used to assess the homogeneity of the sample. The relationship of the individual rankings was established as significant at the .001 level.

Because of the dissatisfaction expressed by employer respondents regarding Question No. 4 on the original form, "What other experience have you had with recruitment of graduating seniors?" it was decided to replace this question with "Have you had previous experience with recruitment of graduating seniors? If so, please describe your role in this recruiting.", on the final form.

In addition, information regarding the possible impact of particular recruiters' views was reasoned to be desireable. Accordingly, the replacement for Question No. 4 was moved to No. 5, and a new question, "How many graduating seniors do you expect to interview this year?

In total?_____

At the University of Alberta? _____" was

inserted as No. 4. This question was reasoned to have the additional advantage of indicating the extent of the interviewer's campus experience (because the questionnaire forms would be distributed well into the recruiting season), and possibly as an indicator of the extent of his campus interviewing in previous years. The final employer questionnaire was distributed in the form shown on pages 130 to 132 in Appendix A.

II. THE INVESTIGATION

Sources of Data

Students. Samples of one hundred of each of the graduating Faculty of Arts students, graduating Bachelor of Commerce students, and fourth year bachelor's engineering students were chosen.

A list of all the arts students expected to graduate from three year programs was prepared by the Secretary of the Faculty of Arts. From it, a random sample of one hundred students was chosen. To each was sent the questionnaire form (Appendix A, pages 121 to 125), a covering letter (Appendix A, page 133) and a stamped, return-addressed envelope for inclusion of the questionnaire. Forty-seven were returned, of which forty-five were entirely useable.

The names of one hundred commerce students were randomly chosen from a list prepared by that faculty's secretarial staff. To each a questionnaire and covering memorandum (Appendix A, page 134) was given through the medium of his assignment folder in the faculty office. Fifty-two were returned; and forty-nine were entirely useable.

The names of one hundred fourth-year engineering students were randomly chosen from a list supplied by that faculty's secretarial staff. Each was mailed a questionnaire and a covering letter (Appendix A, page 135), and a stamped, return-addressed envelope. Forty-eight were returned, of which forty-four were entirely useable.

Employers. With the cooperation of the University of Alberta National Employment Service Student Placement Office, a letter was composed and sent to approximately one hundred and twenty employers who were expected to interview graduating seniors for employment through the facilities of that office during the November, 1965 to April, 1966 recruiting season. A questionnaire form (Appendix A, pages 130 to 132) and a covering letter (Appendix A, page 136) were sent to the representatives of each of these employers who, in the opinion of the Student Placement Office, were most likely to interview at the Alberta office. Of course,

many of these individuals had already written to the office
and made commitments; some had already done their Alberta
interviewing at the time of completing the questionnaire.
Ninety-nine questionnaires were returned, of which eighty-
eight were entirely useable.

Method of Procedure

Students. Categories were developed for analysis of
the parameters suggested by the questions. For instance,
Question No. 4:

"Marital Status: Single   ___

Engaged to be married   ___

Married   ___

Separated, widowed, divorced ___"

suggests four categories for comparison with one another
on the basis of factor rankings. Where categories
contained fewer than ten respondents, they were combined
with others (where logically possible) or the results were
ignored.

Employers. Categories were again developed for
analysis of the parameters suggested by the questions.

Treatment of Findings

Students. Results were tabulated by categories. If
it appeared that some category was associated with a

systematic deviation from the overall ranking pattern, this
relationship was statistically tested for significance.
The Kendall coefficient of concordance W was used to test
the significance of these relationships. The sample data
was tested for derivation from the same population. In
Chapter V these findings are discussed.

The questionnaires were read a number of times for
qualitative information offered in the open-ended
questions. Particular attention was paid to questions No.
13 and No. 14. In Chapter VI these impressions are
discussed.

Employers. As with the student form, results were
tabulated by categories. If a systematic relation between
one of the categories and a unique ranking pattern was
indicated, the relationship was tested by the Kendall
coefficient of concordance W. The sample data was tested
for derivation from the same population. These findings
are discussed in Chapter V.

Qualitative assessments of the open-ended questions
were made by reading the questionnaires a number of times.
Particular attention was devoted to Question No. 6. These
impressions are recorded in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER V

THE HYPOTHESES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

Chapter III sets out two primary objectives for the
investigation. Several hypotheses and Table XVII are
concerned with the first: determination of the recruiters'
awareness of the information students consider important in
seeking a position with a firm. The body of discussion
following section I in the present chapter is concerned with
the second objective--inferences proceeding from the data
under the assumption of face validity of the decision
factors.

In order to statistically compare the students'
rankings of the factors with the recruiters' judgment of
the students' rankings, it was necessary to establish the
homogeneity and stability of the rankings of each
collectivity. Accordingly a number of null hypotheses were
stated and tested by the use of the chi square approximation
for the significance testing of the Kendall coefficient of
concordance W in large samples.[1]

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[1]Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics: For the
Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company,
Inc., 1956), pp. 235-238. When the factors to be ranked
exceed 7, W is approximately distributed as chi square is
with N-1 degrees of freedom and chi square equal to the
number of judges multiplied by the number of factors less
one, multiplied by W.

I. HOMOGENEITY

Null Hypothesis I: The individual rankings of the arts students are unrelated.

A chi square value in excess of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 314.005. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that the arts students are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors.[2] (See Table I.)

TABLE I

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - ARTS SAMPLE

k = 45

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	E	People I will be working with
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	N	Fringe benefits offered
9	L	Attractive physical environment
10	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
11	I	Product or service offered by firm
12.5	F	Fame or status of firm
12.5	A	Size of firm or company
14	J	Activities of firm in community service
15	K	Title of job or position

[2]Ibid., p. 237.

Null Hypothesis II: The individual rankings of the engineering students are unrelated.

A chi square value in excess of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 304.797. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that the engineering students are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table II.)

TABLE II

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - ENGINEERING SAMPLE

k = 44

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	B	Geographical location of job
5	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
6	E	People I will be working with
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	L	Attractive physical environment
9	N	Fringe benefits offered
10	M	Behavior of recruiters or employment people I meet
11	I	Product or service offered by firm
12	A	Size of firm or company
13	F	Fame or status of firm
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community services

Null Hypothesis III: The individual rankings of the commerce students sampled in the middle of the recruiting season are unrelated.

A chi square value in excess of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 303.55. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that these commerce students are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table III.)

TABLE III

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS – MID-RECRUITING SEASON
COMMERCE SAMPLE

k = 49

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	E	People I will be working with
6	B	Geographical location of job
7	A	Size of firm or company
8	O	Status of firm within its own field
9	I	Product or service offered by firm
10	F	Fame or status of firm
11	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
12	N	Fringe benefits offered
13	L	Attractive physical environment
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

<u>Null Hypothesis IV</u>: The individual rankings of the post-recruiting season sample of commerce students are unrelated.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 218.274.

The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level and we may infer that these commerce students are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table IV.)

TABLE IV

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - POST-RECRUITING SEASON COMMERCE SAMPLE

$k = 30$

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
4	C	Size of beginning salary
5	E	People I will be working with
6	B	Geographical location of job
7	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
8	O	Status of firm within its own field
9	I	Product or service offered by firm
10	A	Size of firm or company
11	N	Fringe benefits offered
12	L	Attractive physical environment
13	F	Fame or status of firm
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

Null Hypothesis V: The individual rankings of the students sampled (arts, engineering and commerce aggregated) are unrelated.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 52.08, considering each of the four student samples' mean rankings only (k = 4). When all the students were aggregated, the

chi square value was 1,024.061 (k = 168). The null

hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we

may infer that all the students are applying essentially the

same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table

V.)

TABLE V

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - AGGREGATE STUDENT SAMPLE

k = 168

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	E	People I will be working with
5	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
6	B	Geographical location of job
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
9	I	Product or service offered by firm
10	A	Size of firm or company
11	N	Fringe benefits offered
12	L	Attractive physical environment
13	F	Fame or status of firm
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

Tables I, II, III and IV demonstrate no great

differences in the rankings. "Opportunity to do work I

prefer" and "chances for position advancement" rank first

and second respectively in all cases. "Title of job or

position" and "activities of firm in community service"

rank fourteenth and fifteenth in all cases. "Size of

beginning salary", "types of training programs offered by firm", "people I will be working with", and "geographical location of job" are invariably ranked from third to sixth inclusive, usually in that order.

Both on intuitive and statistical grounds, then, it appears that we may assume homogeneity of the student rankings.

Null Hypothesis VI: The individual rankings of the mid-recruiting season sample of recruiters are unrelated.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 282.652. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that these recruiters are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table VI.)

Null Hypothesis VII: The individual rankings of the late recruiting season sample of recruiters are unrelated. A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 380.240. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that these recruiters are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table VII.)

TABLE VI

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - MID-RECRUITING-SEASON
RECRUITERS SAMPLE. k = 38

Rank	Factor	
1	G	Chances for position advancement
2	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	A	Size of firm or company
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	M	Behavior of recruiters or employment people I meet
9	F	Fame or status of firm
10	I	Product or service offered by firm
11	E	People I will be working with
12	K	Title of job or position
13	N	Fringe benefits offered
14	L	Attractive physical environment
15	J	Activities of firm in community services

TABLE VII

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - LATE-RECRUITING-SEASON
RECRUITERS SAMPLE. k = 50

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	F	Fame or status of firm
9	A	Size of firm or company
10	E	People I will be working with
11	I	Product or service offered by firm
12	N	Fringe benefits offered
13	L	Attractive physical environment
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

Null Hypothesis VIII: The individual rankings of the
recruiters (aggregated) are unrelated.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the
.001 level. The chi square value computed was 642.303. The
null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level and
we may infer that the recruiters are applying essentially
the same standards in ranking the factors. (See Table VIII.)

TABLE VIII

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - AGGREGATE RECRUITER SAMPLE

k = 88

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	O	Status of firm within its own field
7	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
8	A	Size of firm or company
9	F	Fame or status of firm
10	E	People I will be working with
11	I	Product or service offered by firm
12	N	Fringe benefits offered
13	K	Title of job or position
14	L	Attractive physical environment
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

Using information from Question No. 4, the categories
shown in Table IX were developed, and the recruiters in each
checked for homogeneity of rankings by the same method of
hypothesis testing described for null hypotheses I to VIII.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The number of recruiters in each category is indicated by k.

TABLE IX

HOMOGENEITY OF RECRUITERS' RANKINGS ACCORDING
TO EXTENT OF INTERVIEWING

	Chi Square	k
Recruiters interviewing 0 to 5 students at the University of Alberta	138.644	18
Recruiters interviewing 6 to 10 students at the University of Alberta	117.578	18
Recruiters interviewing 11 to 25 students at the University of Alberta	193.546	26
Recruiters interviewing 26 or more students at the University of Alberta. . .	153.044	18
Recruiters interviewing 0 to 10 students in total.	9.802^3	6
Recruiters interviewing 11 to 50 students in total.	201.489	28
Recruiters interviewing 51 to 100 students in total	163.013	20
Recruiters interviewing 11 or more students in total	249.614	29

The only chi square value not significant at the .001 level is that for those recruiters interviewing ten or fewer students in total. However, only six respondents fall in in this category, making it unlikely that it would yield

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[3]Significant at the .20 level.

statistically significant agreement on the rankings.[4]

II. COMPARABILITY OF STUDENTS' AND RECRUITERS' RANKINGS

Null Hypothesis IX: The rankings of the recruiters and students taken together are unrelated.

A chi square value of 36.12 is significant at the .001 level. The chi square value computed was 1,541.120. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the .001 level, and we may infer that the recruiters and students are applying essentially the same standards in ranking the decision factors. (See Table X.)

TABLE X

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS – AGGREGATE RECRUITER AND
STUDENT SAMPLES. k = 256

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	E	People I will be working with
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
9	A	Size of firm or company
10	I	Product or service offered by firm
11	F	Fame or status of firm
12	N	Fringe benefits offered
13	L	Attractive physical environment
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

[4]"Respondents" in the chapters (IV,V,VI) concerning the empirical investigation are those who responded to questionnaires; they should be distinguished from the interview respondents discussed in Chapters I, II and III.

III. STUDENT CATEGORIES

As many categories were developed from the questions as were possible consistent with a significant number of respondents falling in each. The student questionnaire form is displayed on pages 121 to 125 in Appendix A.

From Question No. 1 of the student form, the following information was compiled and summarized as in Table XI. Rankings were placed in three categories: those aged twenty-two or less, those aged twenty-three and twenty-four, and those twenty-five or older. It is evident from examination of the table that no significant differences exist in the rankings.

From Question No. 2, place of birth categories derived were "Edmonton" and "elsewhere in Canada", the only categories with significant numbers of respondents. No significant differences in the rankings are evident from the presentation of this data in Table XI.

Regarding Question No. 3, only two females returned questionnaires; therefore the results were discarded for lack of significance.

From Question No. 4, the categories developed were "single", "engaged", and "married". From Table XII, the married students rank "geographical location of job" fourth. The single and engaged students rank it eighth and ninth

TABLE XI

STUDENT RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY AGE AND BIRTHPLACE

k = 108

FACTORS	AGE			BIRTHPLACE	
	22 or less	23-24	25 or over	Alberta	Canada
A. Size of firm or company	11	9	13	12	9
B. Geographical location of job	9.5	6	5.5	7	6
C. Size of beginning salary	2.3	2	3	2.5	5
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	1	1	1	1	1
E. People I will be working with	2.5	4	5.5	4	3
F. Fame or status of firm	8	13	11	13	11
G. Chances for position advancement	4	3	2	2.5	2
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	7	5	4	5	4
I. Product or service offered by firm	6	8	9	9	7
J. Activities of firm in community service	14	15	15	15	15
K. Title of job or position	15	14	14	14	14
L. Attractive physical environment	13	12	10	10	12
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	9.5	11	12	11	10
N. Fringe benefits offered	12	10	8	8	13
O. Status of firm within its own field	5	7	7	6	8

TABLE XII

STUDENT RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY MARITAL STATUS AND LOCATION OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED

k = 108

FACTORS	MARITAL STATUS			LOCATION OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED	
	Single	Engaged	Married	Edmonton	Canada
A. Size of firm or company	10	11	11	12	10
B. Geographical location of job	8	9	4	9	6
C. Size of beginning salary	2	3	3	3	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	1	2	1	1	1
E. People I will be working with	4	5	5	4	4
F. Fame or status of firm	9	14	13	10	12
G. Chances for position advancement	3	1	2	2	2
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	6	4	6	5	5
I. Product or service offered by firm	7	7	8	8	11
J. Activities of firm in community service	14	15	15	15	15
K. Title of job or position	15	13	14	14	14
L. Attractive physical environment	12	12	7	13	8
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	13	7	12	11	9
N. Fringe benefits offered	11	8	10	7	13
O. Status of firm within its own field	5	6	9	6	7

respectively. This is an unusually large discrepancy and may indicate a truly disproportionate concern on the part of married students for this factor. However, later evidence indicates an instability of this factor. No other significant differences are evident among these categories.

Question No. 5 yielded only the two categories "Edmonton" and "elsewhere in Canada" for "Location of High School Attended". No significant differences are observeable between the rankings displayed in Table XII.

From responses to Question No. 6, six categories were developed; for "Occupation of Mother", the categories were "housewife", "manual and clerical", and "professional"; and for "Occupation of Father", they were "manual", "clerical" and "professional". (See Table XIII.) "Geographical location of job" was ranked from third to twelfth, but in no meaningful pattern. All other factors seem to be ranked evenly among these categories.

Six categories were derived from Question No. 7; under "Education of Mother" were "junior high school", "senior high school" and "some university"; under "Education of Father" were "junior high school", "senior high school", and "some university". (See Table XIV.) No significant differences among the rankings are observeable.

Question No. 8 was qualitatively assessed for the purpose of moving a respondent one category higher than

TABLE XIII

STUDENT RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY OCCUPATIONS OF PARENTS

k = 108

FACTORS	OCCUPATION OF MOTHER			OCCUPATION OF FATHER		
	Housewife	Manual & Clerical	Profes-sional	Manual	Clerical	Profes-sional
A. Size of firm or company	12.5	9	9.5	14.5	9	10.5
B. Geographical location of job	8	4	9.5	12	3	6
C. Size of beginning salary	4.5	3	3	3	2	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	1	1	1	1	1	1
E. People I will be working with	3	6	4	4.5	4.5	4
F. Fame or status of firm	11	12	7	9	13	13
G. Chances for position advancement	2	2	2	2	4.5	2
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	4.5	5	6	6	6.5	5
I. Product or service offered by firm	6	10.5	13	7	6.5	9
J. Activities of firm in community service	14	15	15	14.5	14	15
K. Title of job or position	15	10.5	14	10	15	14
L. Attractive physical environment	12.5	13	11	11	11	10.5
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	9	14	8	13	12	8
N. Fringe benefits offered	10	18	12	8	8	12
O. Status of firm within its own field	7	7	5	4.5	10	7

TABLE XIV

STUDENT RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY EDUCATION OF PARENTS

k = 108

FACTORS	EDUCATION OF MOTHER			ECUATION OF FATHER			
	Jr.High School	Sr.High School	Some Univ.	Elementary School	Jr.High School	Sr.High School	Some Univ.
A. Size of firm or company	13	10.5	10.5	14	11	10	6
B. Geographical location of job	6	5	9	10	6	6	5
C. Size of beginning salary	2.5	3	3	3	2	3	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
E. People I will be working with	4	4	4	4.5	4.5	4	4
F. Fame or status of firm	10	13	7	12	9.5	12	11
G. Chances for position advancement	2.5	2	2	2	3	2	1
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	5	6	6	7	4.5	5	8
I. Product or service offered by firm	8	8	12	6	9.5	9	12
J. Activities of firm in community service	14	15	15	15	15	14	15
K. Title of job or position	15	14	14	13	14	15	14
L. Attractive physical environment	11	12	8	9	8	13	10
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	12	10.5	10.5	11	13	11	7
N. Fringe benefits offered	9	9	13	8	12	7	13
O. Status of firm within its own field	7	7	5	4.5	7	8	9

his response to Question No. 7 would indicate. That is, appreciable technical or vocational education would move an individual from "completed junior high school" to "completed senior high school" in the categorization for Question No. 7.

Question No. 9 yielded six income categories for the principal wage earner in the respondent's family: under each of "1960 to 1965" and "1955 to 1960" were the categories "$0 to $5,000", "$5,000 to $10,000", and "$10,000 or more". (See Table XV.) No significant differences in rankings were observeable among these categories.

Questions No. 11 and No. 13 were most often not answered. From Question No. 13 it could therefore be inferred that the factor list was relatively complete. No conclusions at all could be drawn from Question No. 11, however, except perhaps that it was an onerous or threatening question.

The only career choice influences mentioned frequently in Question No. 14 were parents and high school teachers.

IV. RECRUITER CATEGORIES

As with the student data, as many categories were developed from the returned employer questionnaires as

TABLE XV

STUDENT RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY INCOME OF PRINCIPAL WAGE EARNER AMONG PARENTS

k = 108

Factors	Average Income 1960 to 1965			Average Income 1955 to 1960		
	$0 to $5,000	$5,000 to $10,000	$10,000 and over	$0 to $5,000	$5,000 to $10,000	$10,000 and over
A. Size of firm or company	12	12	9	13	11	9
B. Geographical location of job	7	5	7	7	6	7
C. Size of beginning salary	2	3	3	2	3	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	1	1	1	1	1	1.5
E. People I will be working with	4	4	5	4	4	4
F. Fame or status of firm	10	13	13	11	12	12
G. Chances for position advancement	3	2	2	3	2	1.5
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	6	6	4	5	5	5
I. Product or service offered by firm	9	9	8	8	10	8
J. Activities of firm in community service	13	15	15	14	15	15
K. Title of job or position	14	14	14	15	14	14
L. Attractive physical environment	11	11	10.5	10	13	10
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	15	8	10.5	12	9	11
N. Fringe benefits offered	8	10	12	9	8	13
O. Status of firm within its own field	5	7	6	6	7	6

contained a significant number of respondents. The

employer questionnaire form is shown in Appendix A on pages

130 to 132 .

For categorizing responses to Question No. 1, a

company was considered "large" if its assets or sales

exceeded twenty-five million dollars annually, or if it had

more than one thousand employees. Only if it could not

meet any of these three qualifications was it placed in the

second category for "small employers". (See Table XVI.)

No significant difference in the rankings was observeable

between these two categories. The representatives of

large and small companies seem to agree on the rankings.

Question No. 2 yielded information regarding whether

the respondent was engaged full- or part-time in personnel

work. Table XVI displays the rankings corresponding to

these two categories of respondents. No significant

difference is observeable.

Questions No. 3, No. 4 and No. 5 were concerned with

establishing the amount of experience the respondent had in

college placement interviewing. Questions No. 3 and No. 5

were read to confirm the validity of using certain

quantitative categories as being indicative of this

experience. The eight categories derived were: under

"Total Number of Interviews Expected This Year", "0 to 10",

"11 to 50", "51 to 100", and "101 or more"; and under

TABLE XVI

RECRUITER RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY SIZE OF COMPANY AND EXTENT OF
ACTIVITY IN PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS. k = 88

FACTORS	SIZE OF COMPANY		ACTIVITY OF RESPONDENT IN PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS	
	Large Assets $25 million +	Small Assets $25 million –	Full Time	Part Time
A. Size of firm or company	8	6	10	7
B. Geographical location of job	5	4	4	5
C. Size of beginning salary	3	2	3	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	2	1	1	1
E. People I will be working with	10	11	8	11
F. Fame or status of firm	9	8	9	8
G. Chances for position advancement	1	3	2	2
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	4	5	5	4
I. Product or service offered by firm	11	10	11	9
J. Activities of firm in community service	15	15	15	15
K. Title of job or position	13	14	13	13
L. Attractive physical environment	14	13	14	14
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	6	9	6	10
N. Fringe benefits offered	12	12	12	12
O. Status of firm within its own field	7	7	7	6

"Number of University of Alberta Interviews Expected This Year", "0 to 5", "6 to 10", "11 to 25" and "26 or more". (See Table XVII.) No significant differences in rankings were observeable among these categories. Apparently relatively inexperienced interviewers agree with experienced interviewers on the ranking of the decision factors.

Responses to Question No. 6 generally discussed items which, on the basis of face validity, had counterparts in the list of decision factors. Occasionally the respondent would discuss factors the graduating senior should look for, or the conclusions of a book or article he had read that concerned the question. Usually an original response to Question No. 6 was repeated in Question No. 8. For example, one respondent stated that often students are interested in doing post-graduate work after employment (in Question No. 6), and that a concomitant decision factor should be the company's policy regarding post graduate courses for permanent employees (in Question No. 8).

No factor was mentioned with great frequency in responses to Question No. 8. The fifteen factors listed bear strong resemblance to those mentioned in responses to Question No. 6; therefore, it is only reasonable that the respondents had little to add to the list.

TABLE XVII

RECRUITER RANKINGS OF FACTORS BY TOTAL INTERVIEWS EXPECTED
AND UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA INTERVIEWS EXPECTED

FACTORS	TOTAL INTERVIEWS EXPECTED				U. OF A. INTERVIEWS EXPECTED			
	0-10	11-50	51-100	101+	0-5	6-10	11-25	26+
A. Size of firm or company	5	8	9	10	6	10	10	7
B. Geographical location of job	3	5	5	5	4	5	5.5	4
C. Size of beginning salary	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
D. Opportunity to do work I prefer	4	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
E. People I will be working with	14	12	7.5	8	3	11	8.5	8
F. Fame or status of firm	11	7	7.5	9	7	7	7	10
G. Chances for position advancement	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2
H. Types of training programs offered by firm	7.5	4	4	4	5	4	4	5
I. Product or service offered by firm	7.5	9.5	11	11	9	9	11	11
J. Activities of firm in community service	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
K. Title of job or position	6	11	14	14	12	13.5	13	14
L. Attractive physical environment	13	14	13	13	14	13.5	14	13
M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet	12	9.5	6	6	8	6	8.5	6
N. Fringe benefits offered	10	13	12	12	11	12	12	12
O. Status of firm within its own field	9	6	10	7	10	8	5.5	9

V. IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

The <u>Questionnaire</u>. The considerable agreement
students and recruiters arrived at on the rankings probably
indicated an excellent agreement on a prior order-shared
meaning regarding the decision factors. The assumption of
face validity for the factors does not seem untenable.

In the rankings, only Factor B, "geographical
location of job", seems unstable. It could be that the
meaning of this factor is poorly shared or it could be that
certain groups are more concerned with this factor (e.g.
married students are more likely to have a house, children
in school and other factors in their lives weighing in
favour of a particular geographical location).

The decision factors seemed to describe most of the
criteria felt to be important in the consideration of a
position with a firm by a student. This suggests that some
factors might be eliminated. "Activities of firm in
community service" and "title of job or position" seem to
be particularly likely candidates for removal.

The more than considerable agreement achieved by
practically all the groups suggests that the factors are
not very discriminating. Particularly in consideration of
the experienced vs. inexperienced recruiters does this
implication have importance for the primary objectives of

the investigation. Recruiters with more interviewing
experience have presumeably had more opportunity to learn
for what a greater number of applicants express interest.
Given that their perceptive and retentive abilities were
similar to those of the less experienced interviewers, they
would therefore be likely to have a better idea of what
interviewees do consider important among the decision
factors. The empirical finding that there is no
significant difference between these two groups of
interviewers suggests that either a little experience is as
good as a lot, or that experience in interviewing does not
have a bearing on the rankings. If the latter suggestion
is valid, then the ranking exercise is irrelevant to the
objective of assessing information exchange in the
placement interview.

The author has concluded that the decision factors
used in the study are indeed incapable of yielding insights
into the quantity and accuracy of information exchanged in
the placement interview. Most probably the reason for the
factors' insufficiency in this regard is their broad and
diverse character--the students and recruiters arrive at
approximately the same rankings by merely responding to
similar value systems. The information exchanged in the
interview likely has not as great a bearing on the rankings
as has general social knowledge, the learned ability to

assess generally the attitudes of trait-specific groups of others (e.g. young people graduating from university and seeking positions with firms).

In order to test the tenability of the irrelevance of interview experience, it would be necessary to ask a third group of individuals with reasonable social awareness to rank the factors in the order they felt most students would choose (as the recruiters did, of course). If this group were to achieve substantial agreement with the students on the rankings, as the author suspects it would, then the irrelevance of these factors for assessment of the information-exchange processes of the placement interview would be established more firmly.

On the basis of their students' rankings of the fifteen decision factors, Bunin and Odegaard claimed, "The present study, at least, offers some frame of reference for interviewers to be prepared to furnish the information which most students appear to want."[5]

Knowledge of these rankings by students in general would probably not aid the recruiter in practice. First, the recruiter apparently has a very good idea of how the student ranks them anyway. Second, the peculiarities of

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[5]Sanford M. Bunin and Carl J. Odegaard, "Relative Importance of Job Factors to Graduating College Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, April, 1961, 20, 50-56, p. 56.

the individual student's interests are apparently not detected by this test instrument. The recruiter would be obliged to seek these in the interview. In other words, the recruiter could use a knowledge of the central tendency of a great many students' interests in a tentative, preliminary way only, inferring particular students' interests as the interview progressed.

Only one decision factor ranking would seem at all enlightening for recruiters (i.e. one ranked according to different standards by students and recruiters). It is "people I will be working with". The aggregated recruiters sample ranked this factor tenth. The aggregated student sample ranked it fifth. Students and recruiters at the University of Washington ranked if fifth and tenth respectively in Bunin and Scheyer's study as well.[6]

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[6]Sanford M. Bunin and Gretchen Scheyer, "Campus Recruiters and Graduating Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, June, 1961, 20, 50-59.

CHAPTER VI

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY UNDERTAKEN AND SOME
LIKELY AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

I.   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY UNDERTAKEN

The most serious weakness of the investigation is its concern for secondary phenomena only. Many empirical studies of this type, conducted since 1920, have yielded some conclusions on how effective the interview is, but very little on how efficient it is, or how it could be improved as a communications or influence medium.

Only recently, with the advent of the tape recorder, have more primary observations been available for study. Analysis of interview transcripts is proving a useful technique for understanding of the psychodynamics of interviewing. The future holds more promise for interview research--the assessment of communication through sensory modalities other than hearing will be made possible by interview movies (and eventually, perhaps even "feelies"). The establishment of empirical relationships through direct observation of phenomena seems to be most rewarding in the study of the interview (as it has proven to be in the study of other social phenomena).

In replying to a questionnaire, the respondent may be insincere, untruthful or unconsciously biased.

The respondents' perceptions of a question's meaning may not be identical. In fact, it is unlikely that they would. The researcher's hope is that agreement on the meaning of the factors to be ranked was sufficient among the respondents for the secondary objectives of the study to be achieved. That is, the decision factors may justifiably be assumed to have reasonable face validity, and consequently we might say with confidence, "Graduating seniors are more interested in opportunity to do work they prefer than they are in the geographical location of the job". The extent of shared meaning regarding the factors among the respondents is almost entirely problematical. The author asked three respondents to the pretest questionnaire, and one respondent to the study questionnaire what the factors meant to them. It was the author's impression that there was tolerable agreement on meanings. Obviously such an impression carries little authority. The generalizations made regarding the factors per se must stand qualified to the extent of the error of their subjective meanings.

Particular errors considered likely are the misreading or misunderstanding of the ranking question

(No. 7) on the part of the employers. Instead of:

> "Following are fifteen factors to be considered
> by students in evaluating a position with a firm.
> Please rank them, from first to fifteenth, in their
> order of importance to the students. That is, what
> order do you feel most students would arrive at?"

an interviewer might rank them in their order of importance

to _him_, or in the order of importance he believes the

students _should_ arrive at. Two interviewers specifically

changed "would" to "should" in the question and offered

philosophical precis for their rankings of the factors.

The factors to be ranked do not make a clear

distinction between characteristics of the job, and

characteristics of the firm. It could be argued that a

clearer picture of the relevant attitudes could be obtained

by two questions, one concerned with the job, the other with

the firm.

A number of other parameters could have been

considered and appropriate questions devised. Does the

student's ethnic background have an effect on how he ranks

the factors? Does the educational background of the

recruiter affect his ranking of the factors?[1]

The questions were designed to be brief and innocuous

for the purposes of gaining straightforward answers and a

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[1]Discussed by Sanford M. Bunin and Gretchen Scheyer,
"Campus Recruiters and Graduating Seniors," _University of
Washington Business Review_, June, 1961, 20, 50-59.

favourable response rate. The unusually high response rate
among the employers would perhaps indicate that a longer
and more complicated questionnaire form could be
successful. Many of the employers requested knowledge
of the findings of the study, indicating a high motivational
level. Some favourable comments regarding the questionnaire
itself were received, indicating some success in the
composition of unambiguous questions.

The large proportion of recruiters replying to the
questionnaire, relative to the total population of
recruiters in Canada, indicates a good prospect for
generalization of the sample findings to this population.

The difficulties inherent in observation of
secondary phenomena are of course applicable to the student
samples as well.

An undeniable loss of a great deal of objectivity
attends any information-gathering through questioning.
There is first the problem of motivating questionnaire
respondents to reply at all. Those that do reply may have
attitudes significantly different from those who do not.
Some related problems of the investigation done may be
put in terms of these questions:

(1) Are the student samples representative of their
faculty's graduates?

(2) Is the student sample as a whole (since it is homogeneous) representative of those students being interviewed at the University of Alberta?

(3) Is the student sample representative of all the students interviewed by the recruiters responding?

In answer to (1), the samples constituted thirty per cent or more of the graduating calsses in question; it would seem reasonable to assume that they were representative.

In answer to (2), it is indeed difficult to say. One hundred and fifty respondents constitute a fair-sized sample of any population. Since engineering and commerce students are the most active interviewees (according to the University of Alberta National Employment Service Office), the student sample could reasonably be called representative of the population of students interviewed by campus recruiters.

In answer to (3), the only possibly pertinent bits of information are the responses from students in the sample from other parts of Canada (who numbered to few to yield significant figures), and the results of Bunin and Odegaard and Bunin and Scheyer gained from graduating seniors at the University of Washington.[2] The American

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[2]Ibid.; and Sanford M. Bunin and Carl J. Odegaard,

students ranked the factors similarly. Hence there is some slight evidence to suggest that the sample is representative of the population of question (3), and no evidence to suggest that it is not.

There is no way of directly assessing the attitudes of those students who received questionnaires but did not reply. Two members of the National Employment Service staff intuitively believed that those who did not reply to the questionnaires would be the same people who failed to register for interviews. If this were true, of course, their views would have no objective impact on the information input to the interviewers. However, these same two National Employment Service employees essayed specifically that arts students did not generally use the facilities of their offices, and therefore would not reply satisfactorily to the questionnaire. The response rate for the arts students was not significantly different from that for the engineering students.

Regarding the primary objectives of the investigation (inferences concerning the information exchanges occurring in placement interviews) it is necessary to point out a number of difficulties. The question of whether or

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Relative Importance of Job Factors to Graduating College Seniors," University of Washington Business Review, April, 1961, 20, 50-56.

not recruiters and students shared meanings in reading the factors arises; but it is important in a different sense. It is not logically necessary for the factors to have face validity. It is only necessary that recruiters and students understand the same things by them. This condition is as indeterminate as the condition of face validity, of course. In effect, it is a more unlikely condition to obtain when it is considered that to specify the meaning to be shared, we must probably assume face validity for the factors, and then assume further that the two groups accept the meaning implied by the factors' face validity. That is, if the statement says, "This is white," for the primary objectives of the study the parties[3] do not logically have to share the meaning "white" for the extent of their agreement to be measured. They may agree on the statement meaning "black" or "green". A measure of their agreement could be valid empirically. However, the range of possible interpretations of the decision factors is such that for any sort of meaningful comparison, we must assume that the parties agree on the meaning suggested directly by the factors--we must assume that the factors have face validity, for this is the only possible identifiable meaning we may infer the parties'

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[3]Recruiter and student respondents to the questionnaire.

agreement on.

There is an important possibility that the factors to be ranked victimize the study to "inter-ocular trauma". That is, their relative appeals are so obvious, they "hit you between the eyes". By simply responding to common value systems, the students and the recruiters (without recourse to knowledge of students gained in interviews) could tend to rank the factors in a strikingly similar manner. The recruiter might be saying to himself, "anybody would choose 'opportunity to do work I prefer' over 'size of beginning salary'." The importance of such an effect can in no way be guaged by the study done. If the findings are to be suspect in any way for the extremely high significance levels noted, this qualification would be most important in the author's view.

The students could be responding to an "interview set" when they rank the factors. That is, the topics they show interest in during job interviews could be those they feel they are supposed to be interested in, rather than those they are actually interested in. The interview therefore is dominated by discussion of these considerations. A related bias might be the interview's own structuring favouring some topics more than others. Resulting would be a spurious agreement between students and recruiters regarding what is important to the student in seeking a

position with a firm. Both effects (set and artificiality of interview structure) would undermine face validity and impair the achievement of the secondary objectives of this study.

Recruiters could be aware of the interests of students and still be unable or unwilling to use this knowledge in interviewing practice. It cannot be reasoned, therefore, that the interviewer who knew what students considered important would necessarily tend to discuss these things earlier on in the interview, therefore insuring their inclusion and a more productive information exchange. The question of whether or not these topics are in fact discussed must be referred to analysis of tape recordings.

An awareness of what students in general are interested in could be dysfunctional in an interview with an atypical student. An advantage of the interview form is its flexibility for dealing with individual differences. Perhaps it is more important for the effective recruiter/interviewer to be capable of ferreting out the particular student's interests and dealing with them. The twenty- to thirty-minute campus interview may not reward this sort of approach, of course.

No statistical measure was taken of the variation in ranking of particular factors. The two highest-ranked

and the two lowest-ranked appeared to be very stable,
however. Only very rarely would one of the former be ranked
beyond seventh, or one of the latter higher than eighth.

II. LIKELY AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present research design does not seem to have
much promise for accomplishing the objectives Bunin and
Scheyer set out for a student/recruiter ranking of job
factors comparison. That is, "The information obtained can
be used to evaluate current practices, develop training
programs for interviewers, and furnish a basis for further
research and evaluation of campus interviewing."[4]

A sound basis for further research will probably
only be forthcoming from investigation of first-order
phenomena. Obervation of actual interviews will likely
form the foundation for knowledge of campus interviewing.
The complex distortions involved in inferring interview
happenings from second or third order observation weakens
this information's usefulness in understanding.

The accuracy with which non-interviewers can guess
student rankings could be determined easily. The ranking
question, No. 7, given the recruiters, could be given to a
control group of non-interviewers. If they were able to

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[4]Bunin and Scheyer, op. cit., p. 51.

rank the factors according to essentially the same standards the students were using, the invalidity of the factors for the primary objective of this study would be established.

A great deal of research has been done on interviews with very little useful or objective knowledge resulting. The most promising approach to understanding of the placement interview appears to be the content analysis techniques being used with transcripts of recorded interviews. Webster's colleagues and former students seem to be at the forefront of this work.[5] The premise in this enterprise is that we must learn what actually occurs in the interview before we may understand it. What somebody says happened is not good enough.

At Temple University, a team of clinical psychologists and psychiatrists headed by A. E. Scheflen and R. L. Birdwhistell are filming psychiatric interviews and analyzing the results.[6] If satisfactory techniques can be worked out, more attention will probably be devoted to

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[5]Edward C. Webster, in collaboration with C. W. Anderson, Areta H. Crowell, Patricia Rowe, B. M. Springbett, and D. Sydiaha, Decision Making in the Employment Interview (Industrial Relations Centre, McGill University. Montreal: Eagle Publishing Co., Ltd., 1964).

[6]Albert E. Scheflen, A Psychotherapy of Schizophrenia: Direct Analysis (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1961), pp. 9-13.

this type of research. Of course it holds more promise for the understanding of interviews than present techniques-- it is capable of assessing communications through more than the one sensory modality of sound.

The decision factors used do seem to have tolerable face validity. If they do in fact, the discrepant rankings of "people I will be working with" should be investigated. The present general research design with a more discriminating set of factors could be used to further assess this effect.

In brief, the secondary objectives of the study may be served by a research design of this type using a different instrument. The primary objectives probably cannot be served until some future time when the connection between what actually occurs in an interview and what individuals report as occurring is better understood.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND
CONCLUSIONS OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

The primary objectives of the empirical study concerned the quality of information exchange in the college placement interview. Specifically, factors considered by students in choosing positions with firms might be made known to recruiters largely through the college placement interview. If recruiters had a good idea of what students considered important among these factors, and if experienced interviewers had a better idea than inexperienced interviewers, then the placement interview could be effectively conveying a piece of information from student to recruiter.

To test this reasoning, a number of students ranked fifteen factors to be considered in evaluating a position with a firm. A number of recruiters, both experienced and relatively inexperienced in placement interviewing, ranked the factors in what they believed was the order of importance to the students. Qualitative and statistical comparisons of the results showed remarkable similarities between the two rankings. Experienced interviewers did no better than inexperienced interviewers.

The extremely high agreement among all sub-groups on the rankings suggested that the factors used were not capable of sufficient discrimination. A further implication was that the recruiter judges were not preponderantly using information perceived in and retained from the interview in making their judgments.

The effectiveness of the study in the pursuit of its primary objectives was critically undermined by the unforseen uniformity with which practically all parties ranked the factors, and the consequent inferred inability of the factors to adequately discriminate those well-informed of student attitudes and interests as they would be expressed or implied in the college placement interview.

The secondary objectives of the empirical study concerned the determination of what graduating seniors at the University of Alberta do consider in evaluating a position with a firm. Face validity and shared meaning of the factors are necessary for valid conclusions from the ranking data. The extremely high order of agreement among the groups on the rankings indirectly indicates a probable high order of agreement on the meanings of the factors, which in turn indicates face validity of the factors.

We may say with some confidence, then, that graduating seniors, in evaluating a position with a firm, are _generally_ more concerned with decision factors like

"opportunity to do work I prefer", "chances for position advancement", "size of beginning salary", "types of training programs offered by firm", and "people I will be working with", than they are with "fringe benefits offered", "attractive physical environment", "fame or status of firm", "title of job or position", and "activities of firm in community service".

In line with the secondary objectives of the study, it might also be observed that college recruiters appear to have a good idea of what the graduating senior considers important in evaluating a position with a firm.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES AND ACCOMPANYING MATERIALS

UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT STUDY

University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta

1. Date of Birth: _____

2. Place of Birth: _____

3. Sex: Male   ____

         Female ____

4. Marital Status: Single   ___

                    Engaged to be married   ___

                    Married   ___

                    Separated, widowed, or divorced ___

5. Education:

Complete Names of High Schools Attended	Dates: From	To	Location of School (City and Province)
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

List all Universities and/or Colleges attended	Dates: From	To	List Degree(s) Obtained	Field of Specialization or Major Program:
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Page 2

6. In what occupations have your parents (or guardians) been engaged? Be as specific as possible.

List Occupations:

| | Approximate Dates |
| Mother (or Female Guardian): | From: | To: |

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

| Father (or Male Guardian): | From: | To: |

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

7. Please indicate the last level of academic education of your parents (guardians). Check the appropriate blanks:

	Mother	Father
Did not complete elementary grades	_____	_____
Completed elementary school	_____	_____
Completed Junior high school	_____	_____
Completed Senior high school	_____	_____
Completed Some University	_____	_____
Holds a university degree	_____	_____

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8. Please note any technical and/or vocational training completed by your parents (or guardians). Be specific in describing its nature.

Mother: _____

_____

Father: _____

_____

9. What has been the approximate average ANNUAL income of the principal wage-earner among your parents (guardians) during the two most recent five-year periods?

1960 to 1965: $ 0   to $ 5,000   _____

                   $ 5,000   to $ 10,000   _____

                   $10,000   or more   _____

1955 to 1960: $ 0   to $ 5,000   _____

                   $ 5,000   to $ 10,000   _____

                   $10,000   or more   _____

10. In what organizations have you held membership?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Page 4

11. In what organizations have your parents (guardians) held membership?

_____

_____

_____

_____

12. Following are 15 factors to be considered in evaluating a position with a firm. Please rank them, from 1st to 15th, in their order of importance to you:

RANK

A. Size of firm or company _____

B. Geographical location of job _____

C. Size of beginning salary _____

D. Opportunity to do work I prefer _____

E. People I will be working with _____

F. Fame or status of firm _____

G. Chances for position advancement _____

H. Types of training programs offered by firm _____

I. Product or service offered by firm _____

J. Activities of firm in community service _____

K. Title of job or position _____

L. Attractive physical environment _____

M. Behavior of recruiters or employment people I meet _____

N. Fringe benefits offered _____

O. Status of firm within its own field _____

13. Are there any factors which you consider important
     that are not on the foregoing list?

     _____

     _____

     _____

     _____

     _____

     _____

14. Who has influenced you most in your choice of career?
     Please describe his (her, their) relationship(s) to
     you.

     _____

     _____

     _____

     _____

     _____

AN
Hu Harries

VISION CHAIRMEN
A. O. Saffel
B. R. Rollins
L. C. Leitch
C. A. Lee

CRETARY
R. A. Denham

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE
Division of Graduate Studies

EDMONTON, CANADA

July 14th, 1965

Mr.

Dear

    The Faculty of Business Administration and
Commerce has undertaken research regarding the
recruitment of graduating seniors. You may help by
completing the enclosed questionnaire and returning
it in the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope.
Replies will be anonymous; please do not affix your
name to the questionnaire.

                Yours truly,

enclosures (2)   J. W. Ondrack

UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT STUDY

Graduate Studies
Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce
University of Alberta

The following questions are designed to elicit informa-
tion necessary to a study presently being done at the
University of Alberta on campus recruiting of graduating
seniors. Results of the study should be available for
publication by early 1966.

1. What company are you with? Please specify branch or
    division so that the size of the entity which you
    represent when recruiting may be determined with
    respect to sales, assets, number of employees, etc.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

2. What is your position with the company? Again, please
    be specific. A short note on the duties your position
    entails might be helpful.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

3. Have you interviewed graduating seniors in a recruiting
    situation?

    _____

Page 2

4. What other experience have you had with recruitment of graduating seniors?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. What do you feel the graduating senior looks for in a prospective job? That is, what characteristics of the job would most influence him to take it?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Page 3

6. Following are fifteen factors to be considered by students in evaluating a job. Please rank them, from first to fifteenth, in their order of importance to the students. That is, what order do you feel most students would arrive at?

Rank

A. Size of firm or company ____

B. Geographical location of job ____

C. Size of beginning salary ____

D. Opportunity to do work I prefer ____

E. People I will be working with ____

F. Fame or status of firm ____

G. Chances for position advancement ____

H. Types of training programs offered by firm ____

I. Product or service offered by firm ____

J. Activities of firm in community service ____

K. Title of job or position ____

L. Attractive physical environment ____

M. Behavior of recruiters or employment people I meet ____

N. Fringe benefits offered ____

O. Status of firm within its own field ____

7. Are there any job factors which you consider important that are not on the foregoing list?

_____

_____

_____

_____

UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT STUDY

Graduate Studies
Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce
University of Alberta

The following questions are designed to elicit informa-
tion necessary to a study presently being done at the Uni-
versity of Alberta on campus recruiting of graduating
seniors. Results of the study should be available for
publication by mid-1966.

1. What company are you with? Please specify branch or
   division so that the size of the entity you represent
   when recruiting may be determined with respect to sales,
   assets, number of employees, etc.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. What is your position with the company? Again, please
   be specific. A short note on the duties your position
   entails might be helpful.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. Have you interviewed graduating seniors in a recruiting

   situation? _____

4. How many graduating seniors do you expect to interview
   this year:
                In total? _____

                At the University of Alberta? _____

Page 2

5. Have you had previous experience with recruitment of graduating seniors? If so, please describe your role in this recruiting.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

6. What do you feel the graduating senior looks for in a prospective job? That is, what characteristics of the job would most influence him to take it?

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

Page 3

7. Following are fifteen factors to be considered by students in evaluating a job. Please rank them, from first to fifteenth, in their order of importance to the students. That is, what order do you feel most students would arrive at?

Rank

A. Size of firm or company ____

B. Geographical location of job ____

C. Size of beginning salary ____

D. Opportunity to do work I prefer ____

E. People I will be working with ____

F. Fame or status of firm ____

G. Chances for position advancement ____

H. Types of training programs offered by firm ____

I. Product or service offered by firm ____

J. Activities of firm in community service ____

K. Title of job or position ____

L. Attractive physical environment ____

M. Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet ____

N. Fringe benefits offered ____

O. Status of firm within its own field ____

8. Are there any job factors which you consider important that are not on the foregoing list?

_____

_____

_____

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FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE
Division of Graduate Studies

Edmonton, Canada

March 15th, 1966

Mr.

Dear

      The Faculty of Business Administration and
Commerce has undertaken research regarding the
recruitment of graduating seniors. You may help by
completing the enclosed questionnaire and returning
it in the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope.
Replies will be anonymous; please do not affix your
name to the questionnaire.

                Yours very truly,

enclosures (2)   J. W. Ondrack

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE

March 11th, 1966

To: Fourth Year Students

From: Jack Ondrack, Graduate Studies

Please complete one of these and return it to
the receptionist. Thank you.

FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND COMMERCE
Division of Graduate Studies

EDMONTON, CANADA

March 17th, 1966

Dear

    The Faculty of Business Administration and Commerce has undertaken research regarding the recruitment of graduating seniors. You may help by completing and returning, in the stamped, addressed envelope supplied, the enclosed questionnaire.

    Replies will be anonymous; please do not affix your name to the questionnaire.

    Thank you.

                Yours truly,

encls. (2)   J. W. Ondrack

Box 854,
University of Alberta,
Edmonton, Alberta,
1 March, 1966.

Dear Sir:

Please find enclosed questions on Campus recruiting of graduating
seniors.

Mr. Jack Ondrack is doing this study in order to complete his required
thesis for a M.B.A. degree at this University. A slightly different
questionnaire is presently being completed by students. The results
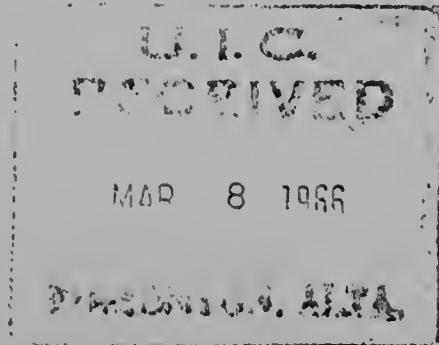of the combined study should be available by June or July.

It would be of great assistance to Mr. Ondrack if you would complete
the enclosed questionnaire in detail and return it to this office as
soon as possible.

Thank you for your co-operation in this matter.

Yours very truly,

John E. LeMay,
Head, NES Student Placement Office.

Encl.

APPENDIX B

PRETEST DATA

TABLE XVIII

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - PRETEST STUDENT SAMPLE

k = 26

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	E	People I will be working with
6	B	Geographical location of job
7	A	Size of firm or company
8	N	Fringe benefits offered
9	O	Status of firm within its own field
10	I	Product or service offered by firm
11	L	Attractive physical environment
12	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
13	F	Fame or status of firm
14	K	Title of job or position
15	J	Activities of firm in community service

TABLE XIX

RANK ORDER OF JOB FACTORS - PRETEST RECRUITER SAMPLE

k = 38

Rank	Factor	
1	D	Opportunity to do work I prefer
2	G	Chances for position advancement
3	C	Size of beginning salary
4	H	Types of training programs offered by firm
5	B	Geographical location of job
6	A	Size of firm or company
7	O	Status of firm within its own field
8	M	Behaviour of recruiters or employment people I meet
9	F	Fame or status of firm
10	I	Product or service offered by firm
11	E	People I will be working with
12	K	Title of job or position
13	N	Fringe benefits offered
14	L	Attractive physical environment
15	J	Activities of firm in community service